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The Historical Thinking Gap: High School History Teachers' Self-Reported Practices, Beliefs, and Identities

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Abstract

This quantitative study explored the practices, beliefs, and identities of history teachers in Oregon high schools. In recent decades, research from the field of history education has advocated for a shift in the way history should be taught in high school—away from a content-based curriculum to one that emphasizes "historical thinking" skills, i.e., "thinking like a historian." But scholars have expressed concern as to what extent these skills are indeed being taught in high school classrooms. Very few research studies regarding actual high school history teacher practices exist, and those that do are primarily qualitative case studies. We also know little about why high school history teachers teach the ways they do. The study addressed three main questions related to history teaching in high schools. The first question was, who is teaching high school history? What is their education background and their demographics? Secondly, how is history being taught? Does it tend towards traditional content and instructional methods? To what extent is historical thinking being taught? And finally, why is history being taught the way it is? Two theoretical frameworks that emerged from identity theorists—community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and discourse community (Swales, 1990)—framed these questions and provided the basis for a teacher survey asking questions about teacher educational backgrounds, beliefs, communities, and identities. 186 Oregon high school history teachers anonymously responded to the survey. The data from this study suggested important

patterns in the educational backgrounds and teaching practices of Oregon high school history teachers. High school history teachers tend to be veteran teachers with graduate degrees. They reported using primary sources often with their students as well as more traditional resources and instructional methods. Correlating teacher practice data with data on their educational backgrounds, beliefs regarding the purpose of teaching history and historical thinking, communities, and identities as historians, the study also showed significant relationships between teacher practices and their education experiences and beliefs but only limited relationships between their communities and identities. Further analysis revealed that teachers have complex and divergent understandings and beliefs about the role they play and the role historians play in the community of practice of history and its relationship to the discourse community of history. Teachers see themselves as historians when they understand the role of historians as the passer-on of knowledge. They do not feel like historians when they see the role of a historian as a researcher and creator of history. Both beliefs reveal they do not believe the role of a historian to be that of a teacher of the historical process. The results of this study will guide those interested in helping high school students learn how to "think like historians."

Keywords: historical thinking, history education, teacher identity, communities of practice

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Dedication

To Sunday: you made our lives brighter.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The importance of teaching and learning history in our schools has long been valued, and even today, history remains a required subject for most American high school students (Kenna & Russell, 2014). But the content of history has often been at the center of controversy and debates. Disputes over who to include and what topics to cover have raged on and off for decades. In the 1990s, these discussions even made it to the floor of Congress, where proposed national history standards failed to pass despite initial support from both sides of the aisle. These history wars, as they are now informally called, debated such things as whether to focus on global issues or the American tradition, or choosing to include Harriet Tubman and exclude the Wright Brothers (Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997). These often loud discussions, which still gain traction in newsrooms and make their way into classrooms, focused primarily on who and what should be included as historical content (Isensee, 2015).

But, if you listen closely, you can hear quieter conversations going on. These conversations are also about history in schools, but focus not on what should be taught, but *how* it should be taught. Instead of being held in Washington D.C. or via news headlines, they are happening in classrooms, history department meetings and teacher training courses. These conversations include not only historians, but also high school teachers, education experts and cognitive psychologists who all ask the fundamental question, what does it mean to know history? While content knowledge has not been entirely set aside, the answer to that question has increasingly focused on how students think and what skills they need to understand the past. Based on studies demonstrating that historians, regardless of content-area expertise, think about history

in a different way than non-historians (Wilson & Wineburg, 1988), an emergent objective for high school history students is to learn how to "think like historians."

Knowing what it means to "think like an historian" has taken on many different interpretations and definitions, but can be defined as having, "a richer and deeper disciplinary understanding that comes from knowing how history is made" (Sandwell & Von Heyking, 2014, p.3). The focus on these interpretations has shifted conversations away from content towards methods, practices, and pedagogy of history teachers, such as the use of primary documents, critical reading, and an inquiry approach to the subject. And instead of division and debate like many of the content based debates, most of these conversations conclude with a similar idea: that students of history should be learning *historical thinking*.

Historical Thinking

The concept of historical thinking is not new: Herodotus first presented his "inquiry" approach in 400BC—the word *'ιστορια* in Ancient Greek actually translates to "inquiry"—and historians within the discipline have been building upon this idea for centuries. But recently what previously had been left to the work of historians has made its way into the classrooms as recommendations and standards for students of school history. Many state standards now require students of history to learn how to "think like a historian" and interpret, analyze, and contextualize historical artifacts and documents (Kenna & Russell, 2014).

The consistent and deliberate attempt to see that students of history learn history as a method and way of thinking instead of just names, dates, and factual

events has been supported for a long time, beginning with a recommendation from the American Historical Association in 1916, then the Amherst Project of the 1960s, and continuing to the cognitive revolution in education in recent decades (Beck & Eno, 2012; VanSledright, 2011). By 1989 the Bradley Commission on History in Schools suggested that history be "training in critical judgment based on evidence, including original sources" (Gagnon & Bradley Commission, 1989, p. 23). Wineburg (2001), Seixas (1993), and VanSledright (2011), among others, have spent their careers leading this movement and writing volumes of a new kind of history, one that will be generally referred to as historical thinking in this study. More nuanced interpretations of historical thinking are historical inquiry, historical understanding, historical consciousness, and historical cognition. While varying definitions abound, historical thinking is essentially "thinking like a historian," which Wineburg (1994) defined as four methods, or heuristics: sourcing, corroboration, contextualization, and reading the silences. The idea is to "move school history beyond reproducing others' conclusions to understanding how people produced those conclusions, while considering the limitations and strengths of various interpretations" (Bain, 2008, p. 185).

History in the Classroom

The idea that students should be learning how to think historically in school has been touted and supported by most every history educator (Holt, 1990; Stearns, Seixas, & Wineburg, 2000; VanSledright, 2011), and there is a growing body of research regarding students' ability and proof of historical thinking skills (Cassedy, Flaherty, & Fordham, 2011; Rouet, Favart, Britt, & Perfetti, 1997). But there is little

evidence that teachers are teaching using these methods, and many have claimed that there is a disconnect between this "emerging signature pedagogy" (Beck & Eno, 2012) and the real practices teachers are using in their classrooms. Summarizing their comprehensive literature review of social studies pedagogy, Beck and Eno (2012) admitted, "Although a review of the literature of social studies education (primarily history) finds some disagreement over the direction of the field, it also reveals important trends that make up signature pedagogies . . . Perhaps the most important discovery through this process is the stark contrast between how scholars believe history should be taught and how it often is taught" (p. 71).

Many scholars and educators alike have expressed similar concerns. Recently, Cuban (2015) specifically asked, "How many teachers regularly use lessons crafted to simulate how historians read, think, write, and come to understand the past?" (para. 2). Empirical research regarding history classrooms is sparse and inconsistent: "There are data pieces, fragments, even slivers that might be assembled into a chipped mosaic from which emerges a fuzzy picture of how teachers are teaching history now," stated Cuban (2015, para. 3). The few studies that have been done are often case studies. For example, Lee and Coughlin (2011) tested 26 teachers for their historical thinking ability, Monte-Sano (2008) compared two teachers' use of historical writing instruction, and Kallemeyn et al., (2013) examined how three history teachers engaged their students in historical thinking after professional development. Other studies exist, each looking closely at specific teachers or a single classroom (Gradwell, 2010; Hicks, et al., 2004; Kelly, 2014; Lee, 2004; Pellecchia, 2015; Wood, 2013). A 2010 study conducted by Russell asked 238 social studies nationwide about their practices,

though the responses had limited options and did not specifically address the notion of historical thinking (Russell, 2010). Despite these studies, there is little information on actual teacher practices in high school history classrooms, so the question endures: how many teachers are using historical thinking practices? The truth is we just do not know.

An additional question—one perhaps less frequently asked—is why do history teachers teach the way that they do? The answer to this question has been explored through the lenses of teacher content knowledge (Monte-Sano & Budano, 2013), teacher preparation programs (Richardson, 1990), and professional development workshops (Davis, Yeager, & Foster, 2001). Sandwell and Von Heyking (2014) explained: "While this approach to history [historical thinking] and social studies education has been taken up enthusiastically, it is not, unfortunately, entirely clear where history and social studies teachers are finding the knowledge and expertise they need to convey this deeper and richer disciplinary understanding to their students in secondary and elementary schools" (p. 4).

This point addresses what Sears (2014) framed as a problem in regard to the teacher's access to the discipline of history. Sears has hypothesized that history teachers do not belong to this inner community of inquiry: "If I am correct that most history teachers work on the margins of the discipline, they often understand themselves as passive recipients of history, not active makers of it" (p. 17). Seixas (1993) has been writing about this divide since the early 1990s. He explained that historians develop their knowledge of historical thinking through membership within the academic discipline of history: "Their warranted beliefs come through a

consensus in the community of inquiry" (p. 309). These ideas suggest that if history teachers were more connected to, or actually belonged to, these communities they would be better prepared and more willing to use historical teaching methods in their classrooms.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was twofold: (a) To learn who is teaching high school history and how they are teaching it, specifically regarding the use of historical thinking methods, and (b) to determine why are they teaching the ways that they do and specifically whether factors such as education experiences, teacher beliefs, communities, or identities relate to how they teach. The aim of this project was to fill in the chipped mosaic and clarify the "fuzzy picture" of how history is being taught and was guided by the following research questions:

Research Questions

I. Who is teaching high school history in Oregon classrooms?
    1. What are teacher demographic characteristics, and what classes do they typically teach in high school?

II. How do high school teachers describe teaching history in Oregon?
    1. What kinds of sources, historical themes, preparation, and teaching objectives do teachers report using in their history classrooms?
    2. To what extent do teachers report using historical thinking?

III. Why do teachers teach the way they do?

1. Where do teachers attribute developing their understanding of what and how to teach history? What beliefs do they report about the contribution of their education?
2. What beliefs do teachers offer in regard to teaching history? What beliefs do they assert in terms of purposes and truths about history?
3. What kinds of communities do teachers describe belonging to? What identities do they claim in relation to these communities?
4. What relationships can be inferred between high school social studies teachers' identifications of contributing influences, beliefs, community membership and identity descriptions of their teaching practices and these factors:
    i) Education Experiences
    ii) Teacher Beliefs
    iii) Teacher Communities
    iv) Teacher Identities?

Theoretical Framework

These research questions are framed by two theoretical frameworks that emerged from identity theorists: community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and discourse community (Swales, 1990). A more thorough explanation of each original model is necessary. Swales's conception of a discourse community consists of six attributes: 1) an agreed set of common public goals, 2) mechanisms of intercommunication among its members, 3) use of those mechanisms to provide information and feedback, 4)

possession of one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims, 5) acquired specific lexis, and 6) a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise (pp. 25-27). In terms of this list of characteristics, the field of history as an academic discipline is a discourse community. There is a set of common public goals: to advance an understanding of history, to educate others in this understanding, and to proliferate research in the field of historical knowledge. This can be achieved in many ways, some of which include contributing novel scholarship and research to the discipline. There is intercommunication and opportunities for feedback and information among members through academic journals, attendance and participation at history conferences, and through a variety of professional organizations. There are also the traditional history departments at universities and colleges that facilitate communication and participatory mechanisms. There are genres within the discipline including academic journal publications, museum materials, archival information, classroom documents, primary sources, and other texts of historical origin. The acquired specific lexis of discipline history would include terms in relation to historiography and the historical method. The final requirement is the measure of threshold by which a person can become a member, and in the discipline of history that measurement might be various educational levels, starting with a bachelor's degree in History, a Master's degree in History, and PhD degree in History, and culminating in a full professorship in a History Department at a university. This threshold level of membership could potentially include people outside of academia, such as employees at historical museums or archives (Swales, 1990).

Seixas (1993) used the term "community of inquiry" to describe historians that participate in a scholarly community, such as academia. This concept aligns with the discourse community that Swales defined, and the terms are used interchangeably for here on. Seixas's model presents historians in a closed community of their peers of fellow historians, excluding history teachers and other individuals otherwise associated with history. In this kind of exclusive community, it appears difficult if not impossible for non-academic historians to enter and learn what can only be transmitted through the "consensus in the community of inquiry" (Seixas, 1993, p. 309).

Another interpretation of a community was offered by Wenger (1998). His concept, called a community of practice, is broader and could be considered more inclusive but with various "levels" of membership. To be such a community of practice, a group needs to have mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire. High school history teachers do indeed have a joint enterprise, as they all teach high school students the subject of history. They have mutual engagement, since they work together, attend faculty meetings together, go to professional development together, and have a socially complex community. The final requirement of a community of practice is shared repertoire. This requirement is perhaps the least adhered to since it is not known how much history teachers share their repertoire of teaching methods and practices. To what extent do they use the same artifacts, employ the same styles and engage in the same actions? Do history teachers have common historical events, participate in shared discourses, and tell the same stories? This is precisely what is not known.

Does belonging to a community of practice of high school history/social studies teachers also include historians? Sears (2014) suggested yes. His use of this model placed historians at the center of the circle of community of practice with high school history teachers on the periphery, and argued that the way to get teachers to "do history" is to get them closer to the core, essentially by using "brokers" to help cross the "boundaries" (p. 16). This view of the relationship between high school history teachers and historians and the historical discipline suggests that teachers need help accessing what historians know and do, but that it is possible to understand and attain. Using these theories as lenses through which to view high school history teachers and their relationship with the historical discipline may illuminate how community and identity influence the ways in which a high school teacher teaches.

Significance

The discourse high school history/social studies educators utilize was examined using the lenses of community of practice and discourse community. Do their practices belong to the academic history discourse community? Many would suggest that no, they do not. High school history educators do not share the same goals, communicate through the same methods, and use a common lexis. But if high school history educators are being asked to "think like historians" and to teach their students to do so as well, then it seems they need to, as Sears (2014) stated, "move from the periphery to the core" (p. 16) of the historical discipline discourse community. The theory of pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986) suggested that teachers develop certain skills and practices for teaching their specific

subject. This would mean that historians, as professors of history, have developed unique ways in which to teach their students how to "do history" and therefore future high school history teachers should be able to transfer this content knowledge and these practices into the high school classrooms. But that is perhaps not an easy thing to do.

Ultimately, to more fully understand the state of history education in high schools, we need to explore what practices high school teachers are using, whether they are based on historical thinking, and to what extent teachers belong to the inner circle or discourse community of the discipline of history. If the agreed upon goal of history education is to foster historical thinking, then we best understand how that is transmitted to students. This knowledge could illuminate some of the gaps occurring in high school education and could influence changes in courses, content, and practices being used by high school history teachers.

Summary

It appears that within the realm of history education there is (finally) consensus: historical thinking is a main purpose and goal. The aim of this study was to investigate who is teaching high school history, how it is being taught, and to explore some potential reason why it is being taught the way it is, paying close attention to teacher identity and community. The hope is, then, is to fill in what Cuban called the "fuzzy mosaic" of understanding what is happening in history classrooms.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

When people say that history never changes, they most certainly are not referring to history education in the United States. The twists, turns, and ever-changing developments of what it means to be a history teacher—to know the oft-politically charged content, to find where and what primary sources to interpret, and, now, to instruct students to think like historians—have, at the moment, appeared to have settled in one place: historical thinking (Ragland, 2014). Now teachers are expected to know historical content, understand the historical process, and have well-honed and successful teaching practices. It is important to understand how this came to be, and that getting here was not an easy or simple task.

The existing scholarship on history teaching suggests that the goal of teaching historical thinking in high school emerged from two distinct purposes: as content or a skill (Seixas & Ercikan, 2015). The teaching of history for content involves questions regarding whose history to teach, which narrative to follow, and who to include and exclude in that narrative. It typically lends itself to more traditional methods in the classroom, with a focus on lecture, textbooks, and multiple choice exams. The teaching of history for skill development focuses on history as a discipline, what historians do, and thinking historically. Classroom methods for thinking historically employ primary source document analysis, historiographical examination of authors, and open-ended writing and "doing" of history.

Much of the political debate and media attention has focused on the conversations regarding content, and from this dialogue the nascent field of historical thought emerged. It is important to understand the main twists and turns of the past few decades and the ways in which historical thinking as the current focus for history in schools developed. This Literature Review will highlight main movements within the field of education and the current state of research regarding historical content and historical thinking as teachers understand them, as students use them, and as the discipline defines them.

History as Content

Historical Background

If history is seen as content—the who, what, and why that is part of a national narrative—then the matter of what that specific content is becomes of utmost importance. It therefore is understandable that what belongs in history textbooks and on state standards is debated, disputed, and discussed publically and nationally, and that this discourse will continue as long as content-based history is seen as one of the purposes of school history.

Conversations about historical content have been going on for centuries, but in the United States public schools they begin around the end of the nineteenth century. The American Historical Association was the organization originally responsible for recommending what history should be taught in high schools around the country. Their 1898 council, called The Committee of Seven, compiled the report *The Study of History in Schools*. Their self-defined purpose stated:

> We have endeavored, in the light of the actual facts, to prepare a report that may be useful and suggestive to teachers of history and that may furnish to superintendents and principals some assistance in the task of framing programmes and in determining methods of work. We have sought to be helpful rather than merely critical or depreciatory, and have tried to consider the whole field in a broad and general way, remembering that we were making suggestions and recommendations, not for the schools of one section or of one kind, but for the schools of the nation. (1899, Committee of Seven, *preface*).

The standards put forth by The Committee of Seven held for decades, until another council emerged out of concern for students' historical knowledge. In 1916, the Committee on Social Studies developed a set of standards and expectations to promote social welfare (Evans, 2004). A diverse and evolving discussion about historical content continued. Novick (1988), in his comprehensive analysis of the American Historical Society from its nativity to the turbulent 1980s, highlighted the morphing, twisting, and revolving of history over time: "The founding fathers of the American historical discipline had grounded objectivity in a program of universalism versus particularism, nationalism versus localism, and professionalized versus amateur history. By the 1980s all of the elements of this program had become problematic" (p. 521).

In the late 1980s, the Bradley Commission of History in Schools formed as a response to concern over the quantity and quality of American history being taught in American classrooms. Following Ravitch and Finn's report *What Do Our 17-Year-Olds Know? A Report on the First National Assessment of History and Literature*

(1987), which revealed that the average student score on the National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) American History Exam was only 55%, the National Center for History in the Schools was established. Funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities, which was chaired at the time by Lynne Cheney, this center was seen as the bridge between discipline history and "School History" and was initially lauded by nearly everyone as the future and savior of history education. However, once this center attempted to write a set of national history standards—a task endorsed and supported by Cheney as aligned with the George H.W. Bush's Goals 2000 agenda—the center and its standards became the hotbed of debate and controversy. In fact, within a few years, Cheney herself denounced the efforts of the historians, social studies officers, supervisory staff, and teachers that worked to create the National History Standards Project (Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997).

Despite complicated and varied political pressures, the National History Standards Project did create standards for K-4 as well as 5-12 in both American and World History. Immediately politicians and public figures criticized the new standards for emphasizing too much social history and not enough traditional political history. For some, especially conservatives, the standards were seen as a threat to American heritage. "Imagine an outline for the teaching of history in which the Founding of the Sierra Club and the National Organization for Women are considered noteworthy events, but the first gathering of the U.S. Congress is not," exclaimed Cheney in the *Wall Street Journal* (cited by Dunn, 2009, p. 22). Criticisms revolved around who was left out or what was de-emphasized, such as the Constitution. Supporters of the standards pointed out that the Constitution was included, even

though "the word Constitution did not appear in any of the thirty-one main standards headings" (Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997, p. 200).

There were many who supported the standards, of course, and saw them as an inclusive and honest look at American history. Support appeared in several newspapers across the country. The *Chicago Tribune* featured Douglas Greenberg's editorial praising them, saying, "The new U.S. standards offered a balanced view of our national history that neither reflexively dismisses nor uncritically praises our accomplishments as a people. This bracing approach to America's past promises to excite the imagination and to stimulate the intelligence of school children" (Greenberg, in *Chicago Tribune*, 9 Jan 1995, as quoted in Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997, p. 196). The *New York Times* editorial claimed, "Students will rejoice in learning from them, teachers will cherish using them" (*New York Times*, 13 Feb. 1995, as quoted in Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997, p. 196). Many universities, historians, educators, and politicians came out to support the proposed standards, but the media focused on its critics, and in 1995 the Senate voted them down 99-1, in a hotly debated and highly politicized exercise of the role of the federal government and the making of historical memory in the United States (Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997).

Eventually, the standards did get published, but rather as a revised set of recommendations that emphasized the "impact of science and technology, amplification of the themes of economic opportunity and democratic evolution; greater attention to the European background of North American settlement and economic history; and a more nuanced treatment of Soviet-American conflict after World War II" (Nash, Crabtree, and Dunn, 1997, p. 252). Also, "the references to

women and to ethnic and racial minorities were contextualized in relation to particular historical developments or social environments" (p. 252). The standards—even the revised versions—lost the support of Congress, who refused to support them as "official" national standards (Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1997).

What is clear about this process is that attempting to pass national history standards ignited—or perhaps more accurately stoked—a debate about *what* and *what should be* history was being taught in classrooms. Clearly, people do care what is being taught in history classrooms in the United States—but exactly what is or should be included is not something everyone agrees on.

Categories of Historical Content

What is being taught in history classrooms—which specific events, who is included and excluded, and major themes and perspectives—is important when the purpose of history is seen as creating or emphasizing a common narrative for American school children. This is especially true regarding American history.

Within the literature, scholars have been defining, organizing, and refining what historical content really is and looks like in American high school classrooms. Barton and Levstik (2004) organized "kinds" of history such as "history or heritage, history and the past, professional history or amateur history, analytic history and collective memory" (p. 4) for their book *Teaching History for the Common Good*, but cautioned against believing that every version fits into a simple dichotomy. They stated that, "Collapsing this diversity (of different ways to make sense of the past) obscures more than it reveals" (p. 5) and explained that these categories are not all

mutually exclusive. The dichotomies Barton and Levstik warned against spread from the discipline of history's tensions and conversations regarding what should be included as part of the historical narrative, whether a narrative should exist, and who could and should be authoring this narrative. These conversations about objectivity and relativism, born from places such as the American Historical Association, eventually have been revealed in high school history textbooks. In 1935, as a member and previous president of the American Historical Association, Charles Beard explained that it is the responsibility of the discipline to carefully consider these perspectives and their legitimacy: the one "clear-cut idea of this class of scholars: the ideal of the effort for objective truth…and theirs was a "noble dream" (Beard, 1935, p. 74). He explained that there exists an Old Guard that seeks the objective truth, but also challenges it: "Are the men put on the other side of the fence opposed (to) the ideal of the search for truth? Here are the contending parties of light and darkness" (p. 75).

Proceeding with caution so as not to obscure, however, one can identify in the literature useful categories for sorting the various interpretations of historical content: Heritage history, Social Studies, and Revisionist history.

Heritage history.

Heritage historical content, which is also called or includes celebratory, holiday history, grand narrative, and the canon of history, focuses primarily on aspects of the past that are foundational for Western structures of government and can be thought of as traditional history (Saxe, 1991; Evans, 2004; Barton & Levstik, 2004).

As VanSledright (2011) explained "This collective-memory project…can be characterized in its school form by a nationalist-oriented commitment to rendering the history of the nation building in the United States as one of relentless progress in overcoming the difficulties that beset a democratic experiment" (p. 12). Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) likened traditional history to "citizenship transmission" where the teacher transmits knowledge, ideas, and values to students who passively retain the subject material for the purpose of succeeding on a written test later in the unit. The belief that it is important to understand the past of the Western world or the United States is essential to this category of content, and to the idea that history should tell the story of a people's heritage—the collective story that unites a nation's memory. This content typically includes people such as Thomas Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt, and Martin Luther King, Jr., and events such as the Civil War, the Women's Suffrage Movement, and Westward Expansion, and is often considered the "canon" of western civilization (Cheney, 1987). A focus on causation makes specific chronology an important aspect of this content. Schul (2014) further explained the connection to chronology: "A teacher of traditional historical content emphasizes content acquisition, chronology, and the textbook as the backbone of the course. It is an efficient approach to cover material and resynthesize content for students" (p. 27). It does not typically focus on big themes, current events, or social justice issues, but instead on what historians often call the Grand Narrative—a telling of the past that is primarily political in focus, with other movements such as the Civil Rights Movement as addenda but not at the center of that narrative. This history focuses on change and

progress and often downplays continuities. It also emphasizes holidays, national heroes, traditional celebrations, and national myth.

Proponents of this kind of history typically believe that a common past, or a shared memory, is essential to the stability and strength of the nation, and believe that just any content cannot form a collective story that binds a nation together. They support the notion that select individuals and events should always be the cornerstones of a national heritage. Defenders of heritage history adhere to exceptional content and American memory as the ultimate goal and foundation of American historical studies. The loudest and most recognizable of these voices in the past few decades has been that of Cheney (1987), but in reality many citizens believe that the doctrine of history in the schools should include the canon of heritage history. Cheney warned against changing the traditional historical content, explaining, "In schools today, we run the danger of unwittingly proscribing our own heritage" (1987, p.7).

Despite these concerns, criticism of heritage history and advocacy of alternative perceptions dominate the literature. Lowenthal (1996) compared heritage history to his conception of "real" history: "History explores and explains pasts grown ever more opaque over time; heritage clarifies pasts so as to infuse them with present purposes" (p. xi). He explained the two distinct purposes that separate history and heritage: "History to explain through critical inquiry, heritage to celebrate and congratulate" (p. 168). He described heritage as a specific view of the past, seen through a lens with an intention to unify. "As doctrine, heritage is mandatory…to share a legacy is to belong to a family, a community, a race, a nation. Inheritors are fellow countrymen—not just patriots but *com*patriots" (p. 2). To him, heritage is a powerful force in education but,

more importantly, it plays an even more powerful role when seen in the greater context of society at large, and demands closer examination. “Its potential for both good and evil is huge. On the one hand, it offers a rationale for self-respecting stewardship of all we hold dear; on the other, it signals an eclipse of reason and a regression to embattled tribalism” (p. 3). His discussion rested not in shaming heritage or eliminating it, since that would cause people to be void of commonalities and purpose, but rather to carefully distinguish it from history. He cautioned that the two purposes—heritage and history—have too often been confused and blurred in the teaching of history in the United States, and he concluded with sharp criticism of those who allow this:

> To bolster heritage faith with historical scholarship, as is now the fashion, smudges the line between faith and fact. It deprives adherents of rational scrutiny and choice, mires them in fatalism, and leaves them at the mercy of simplistic chauvinists. To embrace heritage as history, disguising authority as authenticity, cedes it a credence it neither asks for nor deserves” (Lowenthal, p. 250).

Barton and Levstik (2004) also criticized this heritage history, though they used the broader terms of coverage and control to refer to this process of remembering and reifying the national past. In their landmark book, *Teaching History for the Common Good,* they argued that until the very purpose of teaching history is understood and agreed upon, the necessary yet monumental changes within the discipline are unlikely. As its title reveals, they believe that the ultimate goal of teaching history should be to create a sense of common good, explicitly:

> Students should learn history to contribute to a participatory, pluralist democracy…If teachers are committed to the humanistic goals necessary for democracy, then they literally cannot focus on covering curriculum and controlling students because those practices will not enable them to reach their goals. Preparing students to make reasoned judgments cannot be accomplished by telling them what to think; preparing them to move beyond their own perspective cannot be accomplished by demanding reproduction of a consensual narrative of the national past; and preparing them to take part in collaborative discourse about the common good cannot be accomplished by tightly controlled, teacher-centered instruction. (pp. 259-260)

Nash, Crabtree, and Dunn (1997), members of the National Center for History in the Schools, also discussed heritage history, but called it patriotic history:

> The argument is in fact between two visions of patriotic history. On one side are those who believe that young people will love and defend the United States if they see it as superior to other nations and regard its occasional falls from grace as short pauses or detours in the continuous flowering of freedom, capitalism, and opportunity…on the other side are most historians, who believe that *amor patriae* is nurtured by looking squarely at the past, warts and all" (p. 15).

Another name used in the literature for this kind of history is "celebratory history." As Slekar (2001) described, "the teaching of American heroes and nation-building" is this kind of celebratory history, emphasizing holidays and patriotism (p. 65). He also contended that, "the question that arises here is whether teaching history as an exercise

in patriotism or celebration of diversity or instilling civic values is really a study of history at all" (p. 65). He found that "history as a subject of study in public schools bears little resemblance to the discipline" (p. 67). More recently, VanSledright (2008) also used the term "celebratory history" but added that it is a "narrative of national development and progress" and is critical of it in terms of nation-building based primarily on exclusion (p. 110). "The public school in the United States can serve as a powerful force in attempting to detach outsiders and the naïve from their culturally "unacceptable" and "alien" customs and teaching them appropriate "American ways" to think and behave" (p. 110). He explained how U.S. history classes in schools have been a productive vehicle for prescribing and conserving the same heritage history that focuses on collective memory, successes over failures, and a marginalization of immigrants, and that these purposes and the classes they are taught in have not changed.

Slekar (2009) supported the notion of history education for the purpose of civic engagement in a pluralist democracy, and his case study of one elementary preservice teacher demonstrated how the powerful heritage narrative prevented her—and her students—from learning "any opportunity to learn about the richness of social studies content and the possibilities it provides for genuine democratic discourse" (p. 95). After a year of observations and interviews, field notes and collected lesson plans, a constant comparative study was conducted regarding models of her past history teachers, her social studies methods class, her student teaching practicum, and her thoughts regarding these experiences. Slekar concluded that the teacher, "Amy," was influenced by "patriotic indoctrination," with an emphasis on American

exceptionalism. He explained why this is of concern: "If preservice teachers like Amy are to become agents of democratic discourse, they will need to reconsider their roles as cultural transmitters" (p. 108). And his final message was to history educators who argued for more historical content for preservice teachers as the antidote for better history in the schools: "She may not know a lot about history, but she's empowered to teach it. And the "it" she plans to teach is troubling: because "it" denies children the opportunity to explore what democracy means and to participate in citizenship activities" (p. 109). His study supported his claim that the use of heritage history as content is problematic because it misses the mark of civic engagement.

Social studies history.

One area of historical content that does not fit under the general guide of heritage history is social studies history, which includes global history and social scientist versions of history. This kind of historical content focuses on large themes or movements that have impacted a variety of peoples throughout a larger time period, such as geography, immigration, capitalism, and technology (National Council for the Social Studies, 2010). Different disciplines, such as economics, government, sociology, and ecology combine in ways to make history meaningful. Its content attempts to connect broader societal movements through the use of current events and contemporary news articles and uses a lens that includes economics, political science, and sociology to help understand what is going on in the world. This category emphasizes societal changes and developments, and typically does not tell the story of the political systems in chronological order as much as it includes a variety of times

and places under a theme, connecting events such as the French Revolution to the Arab Spring.

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has 110 affiliates at the state and local level and members in all fifty states who work to support desired state and national educational policies. It has adopted this view of history, advocating that the purpose revolves around civic engagement:

> Social studies is the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, social studies provide coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and natural sciences. The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world (NCSS, para. 1).

Others criticized the inclusion of too much social studies in the school curriculum, concerned that it displaces "real" historical content. Ravitch (1985; 1987a; 1987b) championed this position with several articles and books, claiming that the untested method of using sociologic and economic curriculum in early elementary grades instead of history has cheapened the education of those students. Seixas (1993) also shared her concerns about the role social studies has played in American education and how it has used history for the facts but not the inquiry process and has

therefore lessened its importance. Saxe (1992), another education historian, agreed: "Simply put, social studies became entrenched in schools as a tradition of habit" (p. 259).

Revisionist history.

Another content category that does not fit into heritage history—and is actually a reaction to it—is Revisionist history. This category of historical content has an emphasis on marginalized groups and a student's personal connection to historical events or movements. The historical content revises, or challenges, the orthodox heritage history and suggests that a collective memory does not exist for everyone. It often uses the perspective of groups such as African Americans, Asian Americans, American Indians, women, laborers, children, and other marginalized groups as the focus of the content. Within this content is also an emphasis on how individual students will connect with the past, attempting to make the material relevant and culturally responsive to each student. Zinn (2001) and Loewen (1995) have been two prominent supporters of this version of historical content. Another, Lee (2004), contended that, "There is no true story of what happened in the past, but a multiplicity of complementary, competing, and clashing stories" (p. 129).

Revisionist history seems to have gained popular attention in the years following World War II, but decades before that, the same conversations were being held, mostly in the dens of history scholars and the pipe smoke-filled rooms of academic societies such as the American Historical Association (AHA). Although these discussions were meant for historians, not high schools, they were the

predecessors for a new way of thinking about history and history teaching. Beard, president of the AHA in 1933, illuminated the growing doubt that objective history was truly the goal of all historians. His reaction to the suggestion that "objective history is merely history without an object" and insistence that historical knowledge could be used to throw light "on the quandaries of our life today" (p. 75) was not defensiveness but a call to more debate and discourse about the nature of history. Beard suggested that such conversations could help "the noble dream of the search for truth be brought nearer to realization, not extinguished" (p. 87), paving the way for the inclusion of more pluralistic interpretations of the past in classrooms.

How Content History is Being Taught

When the purpose of history is content, the pedagogical methods associated with teaching it often focus on the transmission of facts. This delivering of names, dates, and events—and sometimes their relationships in terms of cause and effect—charges history teachers with the task of teaching and assessing historical knowledge and fills the traditional history class with the lectures, textbooks, and multiple choice tests that lead many to see history as their least favorite subject in high school (Schul, 2014). As early as 1892 the Madison Conference, a subcommittee of the Committee of Ten, outlined these traditional methods as the ideal approach to history teaching: "The first duty of the teacher is to emphasize the essential points of the book, to show, if possible, what is the main thing worth remembering in the lesson that day" (Madison Conference, as quoted in Saxe, 1991, p. 49). Overall, method was secondary to deep content: "More important than method is object; means are

valueless to one who has no end to be attained" (Madison Conference, as quoted in Evans, 2004, p. 13). According to Evans (2004), traditional history methods prioritize "content acquisition, chronology, and the textbook as the backbone of the course" (p. 317). As Schul (2014) explained, "Most people are probably familiar with components of this version of history education because it was likely their experience in school: passively sitting in class, listening to a lecture, filling out worksheets, and answers questions in the back of a heavy textbook" (p. 23). In their comprehensive literature review of social studies pedagogy, Beck and Eno (2012) explained:

> Those whose entire experience with history education consisted of textbook readings, lectures, and the memorization of facts have experienced what we call the *mainstream signature pedagogy* of the profession…ones who have experienced the process of *doing* history understand the breadth and depth of this wonderful subject area—and they have experienced what we call the *emerging signature pedagogy*. (p. 71)

Similarly, Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) described traditional history as "citizenship transmission" where the teacher transmits knowledge, ideas, and values to students who passively retain the subject material for the purpose of succeeding on a written test later in the unit. Barton and Levstik (2004) explained that this purpose of understanding history is often translated into the explanation of a series of cause and effects. They named this the "Analytic Stance," where students are asked to analyze some element of the past for the purpose of understanding its cause (p. 8). They are critical of this as it overly emphasizes progress as the main goal of cause and effect:

> History in America is often taught as though it is progressing, and when that is the case there is little room for discussing the negative or unintended consequences…For that matter, such consequences can scarcely be conceptualized, much less taken seriously…by suggesting that the desire for freedom is the enduring motivation that drives both individual experience and public policy, it misrepresents the cause of many historical events and renders students incapable of making reasonable and informed decisions. (p. 179)

Despite the fact that this method has received almost exclusively criticism in the past several decades, most scholars still report seeing it used in high school history classrooms (Bain, 2008; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Burke & Andrews, 2008; Evans, 2004; Wineburg, 2001).

Textbooks and content.

Occupying approximately 80% of classroom time (Blumberg, 2009), the textbook has played a large role, perhaps even a corner piece in the puzzle of how historical content is decided on and taught in high school history classrooms. In his 2010 study, Russell found that textbook usage still dominated the practices of secondary social studies teachers. "More than 80% of the respondents reported having students 'complete written assignments from the textbook' half the time or more…[and] these results indicate that teachers prefer textbooks as the primary source of information" (p. 69). The same study demonstrated that teachers depend on lecture

as their primary method of instruction: "'Listen to teacher lectures' yielded more than a 90% rate in terms of respondents using this method half the time or more" (p. 68).

As Russell suggested, dependence on the history textbook, regardless of how updated, inclusive, or well-written, reflects certain teaching pedagogical practices. When teachers use the textbook as the primary resource in their classrooms, they may be deciding that static facts take precedent over dynamic sources such as primary documents or secondary research, and their teaching practices follow suit, reinforcing the idea that teachers are "knowledge havers" that need to transfer factual information into passive minds of students (Russell, 2010). And these facts are often used to create a narrative transmitting a specific political agenda. VanSledright (2008) has consistently highlighted the significance of the textbook as furthering a nation-building narrative: "The U.S. history textbook that remains ubiquitous in these courses offers up opportunities to assess the nature of the narrative of nation building and state development" (p. 113). According to Foster, Morris, & Davis (1996) history textbooks in the U.S. continue to focus primarily on a theme of freedom and offer nearly exclusively examples of how ethnic groups have succeed in America, not their challenges.

Several case studies support Foster, Morris, & Davis's contention that U.S. history textbooks fall short of providing complex and realistic identities of marginalized communities (Blumberg, 2009; Schrader & Wotipka, 2011). VanSledright (2011) criticized textbooks, explaining that "Celebratory progress in achieving a 'we-ness' trumps a past of ethnoracial conflict and violence. It is a history of success, seldom if at all struggle or failure" (p. 114). Schrader and Wotipka (2011)

analyzed how women were represented in World War II narratives in U.S. textbooks and found that while they were often included in the narrative, they were usually relegated to "fitting into" the traditional male-dominated story. "The cursory descriptions of their actions suggest that their contributions are notable because, as women, they lived up to standards set by men. Missing, however, from these compensatory narratives is a feminist history recounting the contributions of women reshaping nonmale-dominated social spheres" (p. 80). And despite new state or national standards demanding new historical content, that narrative remains stubbornly the same, in part because textbooks are expensive to revise and increasingly written to satisfy the content demands of big market stages such as Texas and California (Schrader & Wotipka, 2011). According to VanSledright (2008) "U.S. history-textbook analysis has demonstrated that despite occasional adjustments, the principal narrative arc of progression and continuous national development has remained largely impervious to serious amendments" (p. 113).

Others argue that textbooks often do a poor job of addressing the complicated and nuanced methods of history, leading to a limited understanding of the historical process. According to Wineburg (2001), if students read and know only one source for history, then they are unlikely to understand that history is created, explained, and written through interpretation of multiple texts and perspectives. Wineburg explained, "The defining feature of historical discourse—its constant reference to the documentary record through footnotes—is the aspect that drops out when historical texts become history textbooks" (p. 79). Textbooks marginalize—quite literally—primary documents: "Textbooks rarely cite the documentary record; if primary

material appears, it is typically set off in 'sidebars' so as not to interfere with the main text" (p. 12-13). In their thorough study of textbooks compared with history standards, Foster, Morris, and Davis (1996) found that, "When the four textbooks examined for this study confront the new national history standards for historical understanding, the textbooks fail. These textbooks appear to embrace the conventional belief that history properly is portrayed as a stream of facts leading to a single self-evident conclusion" (p. 385).

History as a Skill: Historical Thinking

Background

Loud, boisterous debates over whose history to teach have been common in the past, nor are they over. But if you listen closely, you can hear other, quieter, and increasingly common conversations about the importance of teaching history as a skill, as a method of thinking. The development and rise in schools of the conception of history as skill, which can generally be called historical thinking, has two birthplaces: the field of education and the discipline of history. Within the field of education, the belief and use of historical thinking comes from a cognitive approach to learning, based on the fundamental beliefs of psychologists Piaget, Bruner, and Gardner (Lévesque, 2008). In history, it emerged from the same movement that developed the social studies and the Progressives. These developments and movements have intertwined in the early 2000s, perhaps not coincidently with the end of the History Wars of the 1990s.

The progressive/cognitive revolution in education.

Progressive historical pedagogy emerges from the historic education movement towards a more student-centered classroom instruction. As a reaction to the traditional teacher-centered classrooms, this movement had its foundations in the beliefs of John Dewey (1916) and other education reformers of the day. About this era in the early 1920s, Cuban (1993) pointed out, "different conceptions of the school's role and teaching were slowly making their appearance…Teachers created mixtures of practices that mirrored broader conflicts between cultivating individual children's growth and preparing children to find a useful niche in the social order" (p. 45).

These ideas about how best to engage and instruct students bled into the history classroom as well. Progressives teach based on the belief that students learn when they are personally engaged with the material, and so this method uses projects, debates, and self-reflection (Dewey, 1916; Gerwin & Zevin, 2010).

Led by Piaget, the cognitive revolution, as it is now referred, rejected the idea of "teaching by telling," and espoused a new way—an interactive way—of teaching that engaged students and ultimately fostered their learning (Lévesque, 2008):

> Instead of the age-old practice of teacher standing in front of the classroom inserting their knowledge into the passive brains of their students, cognitive learning, 'was a complex act of meaning- and sense-making requiring careful examination of the learner's mental processes…and thus emphasized the importance of each student's individuality and unique mode of learning and

> the need for adequate teaching methods to elicit the student's own ideas and experiences.' (p. 10)

This belief about the role of the student as learner shifted, and, in the field of history, one attempt to engage students in the historical process was historical thinking.

Following this initial movement was Gardner (in Lévesque, 2008), who focused on the mind and its habits. His ideas became relevant to history because they highlight the fact that students have preconceived ideas about history when they enter a classroom, and getting them to change those ideas—many of which have been built upon and reinforced for decades—is not an easy or simple task (2009). "Because of their biological and cultural backgrounds, personal histories, and idiosyncratic experiences, students do not arrive at school as blank slates, nor as individuals who can be aligned unidimensionally along a single axis of intellectual accomplishment. They possess different kinds of minds, with different strengths, interests, and modes of processing information" (p. 106).

Sears (2014) applied these ideas to the specific realm of history, explaining that changing students' and teachers' minds required a cognitive shift, and since those coming into history classrooms—as teachers or students—have prior knowledge, those cognitive schemata often persist and resist change (p. 16). Therefore, as Gardner admits, "we need to devote years to educating students in the arcana of the disciplines" (as quoted by Sears, 2014, p. 17).

History and Historical Thinking

The cognitive revolution may have officially begun outside the realm of history departments, but historians quickly understood its application to their field. As Calder (2006) explained:

> Cognitive science has much to teach history teachers about memory, about the relation between facts and thinking, and about the nature of historical thinking itself. Or we could listen to our own…In an address to the 1969 meeting of the American Historical Association, Sellers explained: 'The notion that students must first be given facts and then at some distant time in the future will "think" about them is both a cover-up and a perversion of pedagogy.... One does not collect facts he does not need, hang on to them, and then stumble across the propitious moment to use them. One is first perplexed by a problem and *then* makes use of facts to achieve a solution'" (Calder, 2006, pp. 1362-3).

Others from the field of history fell in line with this way of thinking, and some began writing about it. VanSledright (2011) explained the main reasons why there needs to be a shift in the ways history is taught by highlighting the problematic consequences of teaching the traditional methods: it emphasizes the acquisition of the freedom-quest narrative, it develops consumers of the past, it has low cognitive challenge, students of color resist the narrative register, the poor performance on national assessments, and the waning interest of history in general (p. 22-28). He proposed an imaginative new way of teaching history, one that focuses on inquiry, investigation, and interpretation.

The belief that history as it is taught in American schools should focus on skills, either in congruence with content or as a priority over content, has arisen as the most prevalent way to define what is "real history." To know history now includes knowing how it is made (Sandwell &Von Heyking, 2014, pg. 3). But even when everyone agrees on this as a purpose, the various interpretations, definitions, and origins of this way of thinking can still vary greatly.

Rugg (1923) implemented some of these progressive ideas into his books about social studies, *The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary Schools*. "These books (which came with a teacher's guide) positioned the teacher to create a classroom in which students were posed to deliberate, discuss, and attempt to solve social problems of the era" (Schul, 2015, p.26). Schul defined this method as social meliorist, Hlebowitsh called it experimentalism, and others referred to it as reflective inquiry (Barr, Barth, & Shermis, 1977), but all of these names and explanations encapsulate the idea that history should be engaging and personal to the student, and the classroom should serve as a "laboratory for democracy in which students were asked to make decisions and constantly connect the past with the present" (Schul, p. 26). Decision-making is key to this method and was seen as the heart of this social studies-based instruction.

Pedagogical content knowledge.

The term pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is not exclusive to history, and refers to what Shulman (1986) defined as,

> A second kind of content knowledge, which goes beyond knowledge of subject matter *per se* to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching. I still speak of content knowledge here, but of the particular form of content knowledge that embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability…[and] also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons. If those preconceptions are misconceptions, which they so often are, teachers need knowledge of the strategies. (p. 9)

History educators have argued that it should not just be what historians know but what historians *do*—create a narrative of significance through the analysis and interpretation of a variety of sources—that should be taught to students. This special kind of knowledge, this historical pedagogical content knowledge, is what historians *do* that can be taught to students. Kallemeyn et al., (2013) explained: "In the discipline of history, PCK involves teachers engaging in historiography, such as conducting their own research for primary and secondary sources, and framing historical questions for inquiry" (2013, p. 40). History as a skill, which can generally be called historical thinking, is the PCK of the discipline of history. In the same way that the content of science is biology and physics but the processes are scientific methods and practices teachers use are inquiry based pedagogies, in history the content is American and World, the process is historiographical, and teachers use historical thinking pedagogical practices.

Out of these two parallel developments came Wineburg, a cognitive psychologist with a background in history. He refined the idea of using cognitive beliefs about student learning in education and merged it with the subject of history and moved the concept of historical thinking along quickly and convincingly. Essentially, Wineburg argued that historians read and understand historical sources in a different way than anyone else, using certain kinds of analytical processes and asking different questions (Wineburg, 1991). He explained that when historians read texts, they go beyond reading it literally or even for the inferred text, but they read and understand the "subtext." In a study he conducted where he asked historians from a range of specialty areas to read a document, he found that they all sought to understand different aspects of the source—the rhetorical subtext and the source as a human artifact. Historians learn the authors' purposes, goals, and interactions when they question the source as a rhetorical artifact, but they also ask questions about how the text frames reality and discloses information about the author's assumptions, world views, and beliefs: "It is a reading that leaps from the words authors use to the types of people authors are, a reading that sees texts not as ways to describe the world but as a way to construct it" (1991, 499). Wineburg (2001) has worked to define the skills historian have when they read historical texts. Specifically, Wineburg has defined four different heuristics that historians employ as they read historical documents: sourcing, corroboration, contextualizing, and listening to the silences.

European conceptions of historical thinking.

At the same time as the United States was enduring its National History Standards controversy, other nations were grappling with the role of history in their societies: "In many parts of the world, we hear authorities, both public and private, argue for a return to the traditional didactic history with its manageable curriculum and prepackaged values" (Laville, 2004, p. 167). The concept of historical consciousness, which emerged in the 1970s through German historians contemplating their nation's role in the newly united Europe (Laville, 2004) and spread, being adopted and adapted primarily in Great Britain's history education, went in a different direction. Noted for his work in England, Lee (2004) explained the similarities between historical consciousness approach and historical thinking and his reasons for supporting this approach: "Learning to understand the discipline does not replace the goal of understanding particular passages of the past. The point of learning history is that students can make sense of the past, and that means knowing some content…But understanding the discipline allows more serious engagement with the substantive history that students study, and enables them to do things with their historical knowledge" (p. 139).

In comparison to Europe, which has a long history of historical thinking pedagogy and a closer relationship between history teaching in schools and the academic historical discipline, conversations in the United States about the teaching of historical thinking are relatively new and unique, emerging out of the field of education as well as history. Much more research on how European and Canadian, Australian, and other nations remember their past has been conducted and analyzed

(*Germany*: Kölbl & Konrad, 2015; Körber & Meyer-Hamme, 2015; *Canada*: Christou, 2014; Duquette; 2014; Lévesque, 2014; *Sweden*: Eliasson, Alvén, Axelsson Yngvéus, & Rosenlund, 2015; *Netherlands*: van Boxtel, Grever, & Klein, 2015).

Still, increasing numbers of American historians, high school teachers, education professors, and cognitive psychologists are talking not about historical thinking and how to teach it. And instead of division and debate, most of these conversations have concluded with a similar idea: students of history should be learning about history as a skill, not as content. As Slekar (2001) summarizes, "The debate is over whose heritage to teach, not about teaching history as an inquiry process" (p. 68). Despite some of the reluctance to fully embrace this method by some, it appears that the historical inquiry approach has the loudest voice in the realm of historical pedagogy today, and has been touted as the best way forward for history teachers in high schools (Cuban, 2015).

State and national history standards.

The movement towards history as more than content has been evidenced in academic research but it has also gained traction by those who write state and national standards. Historical thinking is now listed as a primary goal of high school education. After the proposed National Social Studies Standards failed to pass, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) created a set of guidelines for social studies curriculum which was based on 10 Themes of Social Studies. The updated 2010 standards, entitled *National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies: A Framework for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment*, was never a set of standards in

the form of requirements for states, but were meant to function as a framework for districts, teachers, and policy-makers in lieu of such national standards.

Other institutions have developed their own set of social studies or history standards in hopes of guiding or influencing states, policies, and even textbooks. University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) is one such institution and published their History Standards in 1996 based much on the failed National Standards. Gary Nash was an integral part of the initial process and is the director for the National Center for History in the Schools at UCLA, so it can be assumed that the content has much been left intact. In these standards, Historical Thinking is the first set of expectations, and five main kinds of activities that foster Historical Thinking are listed:

1. Chronological Thinking
2. Historical Comprehension
3. Historical Analysis and Interpretation
4. Historical Research Capabilities
5. Historical Issues-Analysis and Decision Making

The document emphasized that these categories are "interactive and mutually supportive" and explained that,

> The study of history, as noted earlier, rests on knowledge of facts, dates, names, places, events, and ideas. In addition, true historical understanding requires students to engage in historical thinking: to raise questions and to marshal solid evidence in support of their answers; to go beyond the facts presented in their textbooks and examine the historical record for themselves; to consult

> documents, journals, diaries, artifacts, historic sites, works of art, quantitative data, and other evidence from the past, and to do so imaginatively—taking into account the historical context in which these records were created and comparing the multiple points of view of those on the scene at the time (www.nchs.ucla.edu).

The Common Core State Standards, first released in 2010 with intention of adoption by all states by 2015, included history and social studies expectations within the English Language Arts/Literacy Standards. The standards for 9-12 Literacy in History/Social Studies focused primary on reading texts for support and details. No specific mention of historical thinking was given, but some related ideas were present:

- CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.RH.11-12.6: Evaluate authors' differing points of view on the same historical event or issue by assessing the authors' claims, reasoning, and evidence.
- CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.RH.11-12.9: Integrate information from diverse sources, both primary and secondary, into a coherent understanding of an idea or event, noting discrepancies among sources. (www.corestandards.org/ELA-Literacy/RH/11-12/).

While technically not history standards, since they are tied directly to forms of literacy, these do begin to address some of the expectations of historical thinking and an extension of thinking about history in terms other than as static facts, names, and dates.

Despite the lack of national history or social studies standards, many states have adopted a model that includes historical thinking as a primary objective. The State of Oregon Department of Education lists the following four high school recommendations for Social Studies entitled:

Historical Thinking

> HS.10. Evaluate an historical source for point of view and historical context.
>
> HS.11. Gather and analyze historical information, including contradictory data, from a variety of primary and secondary sources, including sources located on the Internet, to support or reject hypotheses.
>
> HS.12. Construct and defend a written historical argument using relevant primary and secondary sources as evidence.
>
> HS.13. Differentiate between facts and historical interpretations, recognizing that a historian's narrative reflects his or her judgment about the significance of particular facts. (Oregon Social Sciences Academic Content Standards, 2011, retrieved from ode.or.gov)

Based on these sources, it is clear that a shift towards adopting historical thinking into the framework and expectations for high school history teachers is nearly universal.

Historical Thinking in Practice

The Historical Thinking pedagogical method focuses on close reading of historical materials—speeches, diaries, laws, among others—so students can interpret by themselves what happened in the past. Historical thinking is meant to replicate what historians in academia do and, as Fritz Fischer (2011) said, it can "be the Rosetta Stone that can connect the world of the K-12 history teacher to the world of the

university historian" (p. 15). Wineburg (2001), a champion of this method in high school history classrooms, suggested that historical thinking can be rather "unnatural" for students since it requires them to think outside their familiar worldview and comfortable assumptions. This pedagogical method of approaching history has grown in popularity in the research the past several decades, dominating the field of historical pedagogy (Bain, 2008; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Cuban, 2015; Fischer, 2011; Lesh, 2011a; Seixas, 1993; Wineburg, 2001).

Historical thinking is explained in many different ways and is given varying definitions by those who explain it. Bain (2005) suggested that teachers must problematize history, which means "raising questions about particular historical stories, narratives, or interpretations…raising questions that are fundamental to historical understanding" (p. 184). This method helps "move school history beyond reproducing others' conclusions to understanding how people produced those conclusions, while considering the limitations and strengths of various interpretations" (p. 185). Lesh (2011a) argued that, "A growing body of research indicates that students can evaluate various historical sources, apply them to the development of an evidence-based historical interpretation, and articulate their interpretations in a variety of formats. When taught to pose questions…students become powerful creators of history rather than consumers of a predetermined historical narrative" (p. 19).

Fischer (2011), a historian and director of history education, described critical historical thinking skills in seven descriptive components: a) History is about questions, not answers; b) We center our questions and inquiries on sources; c) We use primary sources to understand the past and secondary sources to help contextualize

our subject; d) We look at and care about dates and chronology and study change and continuity over time; e) We explore cause and effect. History is not merely "one damn thing after another"; f) We look at authorship; g) We examine different points of view and multiple perspectives about events in the past; h) We look at different kinds of sources and examine the intent and motivation behind each source; i) We bring these sources together and make judgments and craft arguments about the past (Fischer, 2011a, p. 16). Burke and Andrews (2008) used the Five C's of history to explain historical inquiry: change over time, context, causality, contingency, and complexity. While there are nuanced differences in the semantics of these explanations, they all have some common components: using primary documents to understand, contextualize, and interpret the past are essential to history inquiry.

As part of her role as a director for the Teaching American History Project, Mandell (2008) helped decipher the differences between historical literacy and historical "ways of knowing." She explained that historical literacy is what history "is" and what historians "do" and that, "historical literacy requires a degree of fluency in the disciplinary language of history and, more broadly, requires fluency in historical "ways of knowing" (p. 55). In an attempt to help students learn these ways of knowing, she defined what it meant to "think like a historian," and so created a framework for understanding. This framework differs from some of the state and national standards for history in two ways: it separates the historical process, or the way historians study the past, from the way they organize the past, also called historical categories of inquiry. Mandell defined these as five distinct categories of inquiry: cause and effect, change and continuity, using the past, through their eyes,

and turning points. The historical process includes the ways historians know about these categories: asking questions about the past, gathering sources and evaluating the evidence, and drawing conclusions (Mandell, 2008, p. 55-57). These ideas have contributed to the field by providing definitions that clarify what it means to think like a historian, which help teachers plan lessons and provide appropriate instruction for students.

There are some who voice concern over these historical thinking methods, as it could make the vast array of historical knowledge even murkier. In response, Peter Seixas (1993) challenged those that adhere to a cultural literacy belief about history:

> Stripped to its essence, the argument holds that one cannot participate in a culture without sharing a set of common reference points. The more restricted the set of common reference points, the more meagre and impoverished will be the dialogue and discussion which can be generated. Without a shared set of basic concepts, elementary literary and historical allusions and vocabulary, students have no basis for more sophisticated, creative work…Will not the time spent on that inquiry be taken away from helping to build the knowledge base necessary for more sophisticated work? How will class time spent on groups on the margins of history help to build a common vocabulary shared by all? (p. 285-286).

Much of the hesitation to adopt historical inquiry methods is born of fears that it would lessen the amount of content and shared understandings of the events of the past.

Gerwin and Zevin (2010) would likely consider their method of teaching U.S. History "as mystery" as connected to historical thinking because of their focus on student involvement. They reject the idea that history should be taught as a collection of facts and instead suggest that it should be a method of interpretation, with an emphasis on the role of the student as the collector and evaluator of evidence: "From a teaching perspective, mysteriousness raises students' levels of interest, and decision-making opportunities raise the degree and intensity of classroom participation" (p. 6). The historical mysteries can be rated from simple to complex, based on five main criteria: comprehension, reliability, viewport, solution, and issues; the method itself sets up the student to act as a detective searching for clues that will help solve a mystery. This method is meant to encourage teachers to "invite discussion and analysis, debate and argument" through the lens of the student (p. 6). Gerwin and Zevin base their argument for the success of this method on learning theories associated with strong metacognition, believing that "the child should be aware of her own thought processes" (Bruner, 1986, as quoted by Gerwin & Zevin, 2010, p. 7). With a broader purpose than simply transmitting heritage or thinking like a historian, this method of progressive historical pedagogy dominated many high school history classrooms for decades.

Primary sources are important elements in historical thinking pedagogy. The use of primary sources in high school history classrooms has been supported for decades, with many teachers embracing them as part of their teaching materials. However, the purpose and intended objectives for their use is still being debated and discussed. Barton and Levstik (2004) describe this tension:

> There seems widespread agreement among history educators…that analyzing primary sources is a good thing. There is less consensus as to why this should be so. In many cases, the practice of analyzing primary sources has become reified, as though it were an end in itself, or as though meaning could inhere in historical sources themselves rather than in the uses to which they are put. This has led to the unfortunate practice of asking students to evaluate historical sources apart from any guiding questions, or in connection with questions they have not themselves developed and that they may not consider important (p. 201).

Barton and Levstik conclude with their argument that historical inquiry is the ultimately the end, not simply reading the historical sources.

Ruth Sandwell (2003) explored this belief that not all primary source usage was created equal and offered strategies for helping students read sources historically. Sandwell explained that the embracing of constructivist thinking in education has encouraged the use of primary sources since they allow students to actively analyze and create a historical narrative, but that their mere use does not inherently engage students or help them think historically. She explained that often students disregard a source because it contains some sort of bias, and is therefore not "true" or worthy of consideration, and that for these students, "historical knowledge is not so much irrelevant as impossible to obtain…Because they have mistakenly understood history as a series of facts about the past, they are not able to take seriously the invitation to apply methods of critical enquiry to the documents they are asked to investigate. Instead, they are confused. Rather than trying to uncover the complex meanings of the

texts they are examining, they more commonly try to use the tools they have available to answer the one question that they think is relevant to historical investigation: is it true?" (p. 173-4). Sandwell suggested that students take seriously the difference between history and the past: evidence, preservation of it, significance, interpretation, and putting into a meaningful narrative. They should also take seriously the difference between truth and meaning, or the difference between "Is it true?" and "What does it mean?" Finally, Sandwell suggested, students should pay attention to the world in which the document was created, which means listening to the voice of the author, the audience, who preserved the document, what can we learn about the attitudes, thoughts, and ideas of the people from the document, and other potential voices that may or may not be missing. Sandwell concluded, "Although the study of primary documents has been enthusiastically embraced by some social studies teachers throughout North America…its promise is seldom realized."

> Many teachers have little experience in the analysis of historical documents, and students are reluctant to engage in the kinds of critical enquiry that they are capable of employing. Even when students understand the process of evidence-based critical enquiry, their attempts to apply critical analysis to history are thwarted by deeply held and often contradictory philosophical beliefs about the nature of historical knowledge. Students tend to seesaw back and forth between believing in absolute truth, with its suggestion that students are simply required to find the "right" answer provided by some authority, and complete relativism, in which any interpretation is as good as any other, and all

> are equally meaningless. The term "bias" often shrouds both these problems. (Sandwell, 2003, p. 184).

As Sandwell pointed out, a teacher's embrace of primary sources could be evidence of more widespread practices of historical thinking, but it very much depends on the ways in which these sources are used.

Empirical Research on Historical Thinking

Most of the research regarding historical thinking focuses on how and to what extent students, and to a lesser extent their teachers, can do it. The studies that have been conducted on teachers are usually either case studies and have included primarily student teachers or those recently graduated from teacher education programs. Wineburg (1991) conducted the landmark study that nearly all subsequent studies of historical thinking have followed. Based in part on the research completed for his dissertation, Wineburg's study demonstrated different techniques and ideas between eight historians and eight high school students as they read, interpreted, and analyzed historical documents. Wineburg captured their thoughts using a "think-aloud" strategy, where they explained their questions, assumptions, and understandings of the sources as they read. Findings suggest that despite some historians' lack of content knowledge about a specific time period, the kinds of interpretations and conclusions the historians made showed a higher level of sophistication regarding how to think about historical documents: "Historians seemed to view texts not as vehicles but as people, not as bits of information to be gathered but as social exchanges to be understood. Viewed in this light, the sourcing heuristic is not really a rule of thumb or

problem-solving strategy as much as it is the manifestation of a belief system in which texts are defined by their authors" (p. 84). This study illuminated Wineburg's claim that there is something more that needs to be taught in regard to history, and that experts in the field of history differ from students in understanding the purpose for reading texts. As Wineburg stated, "It can be said with some assurance that able high school students can know a lot of history but still have little idea how historical knowledge is constructed" (p. 84). In order to gain this expert knowledge, students must explicitly be taught four basic methods or heuristics of historians. Wineburg defined sourcing as the act of examining a document's source before reading it and using any acquired information to comprehend and to make inferences about the historical account. Corroboration is making connections between information found in different texts, with contradictions and similarities being noted, and contextualization is an effort to imagine the particular geographic, political, historical, and cultural context of an event and to comprehend documents within that context (1991b). Finally, in reading the silences, historians ask questions of an account, including what the speaker is not mentioning, whose voices we are not hearing in a particular document or historical account, and which perspectives are missing (Martin & Wineburg, 2008).

Some studies have assessed teacher practices in the social studies classroom. Russell (2010) conducted a study that explored secondary social studies teacher practices by asking Likert frequency questions regarding specific methods. He asked 35 questions with the guide, "When I teach social studies, I have students…"

- Examine primary sources (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

- Read maps, charts, and/or graphs (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
- Examine secondary sources (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)

and so forth. The results indicated that teachers have students listen to teacher lecture most of the time, with 90% responding that they expect that more than half the time or more. While this study reveals common practices, it does not explore why teachers choose those methods or illuminate any insight into the communities and identities of these teachers.

Sometimes historical thinking is understood as a specific and applied way to demonstrate critical literacy. Nokes (2007) has encouraged the use of history as an avenue through which to teach critical literacy, stating:

> The discipline of history requires historians to do many of the same complex tasks asked of general readers today…to read in a nonlinear fashion, corroborating information found in one text with that found in different sources and resolving inconsistencies that are often found in multiple documents… (and) one of the places where students have the opportunity to learn these degrees of literacy is in the study of history (p. 492).

Nokes's quasi-experimental study highlighted how applying four different instructional interventions using historians' heuristics resulted in students' increased understanding and superior learning. He acknowledged that the use of multiple texts "led to gains in students' content knowledge" and that "findings from this study suggest that history teachers can include heuristics instruction with multiple texts in their classrooms without compromising students' learning of historical content. In fact, students who received heuristics instruction with multiple texts scored

significantly higher on the content posttest than their peers who were part of the more traditional intervention, using textbooks to study content" (p. 502).

In the early stages discussion regarding historical thinking as a goal for history many teachers and students doubted whether children could even learn how to think historically. Studies addressing if it was possible for students to employ practices that could be called historical thinking were conducted, one after another, varying by age, content, and sample size. The overwhelming majority of these studies affirmed that indeed children could think historically—though to varying degrees and dependent on the guidance they received as they learned.

Rouet, Favart, Britt, and Perfetti (1997) conducted one of the earliest studies of students' ability to use historical thinking methods. Their study, which was intended to test the domain knowledge of 18 history graduate students over the knowledge of 16 non-history graduate students, found that students read historical documents for different purposes. Non-history graduate students used the sources to explain and understand what had happened, while the history graduate students used the sources for interpretations and evidence. The study supported the supposition that history students read, understood, and used historical sources differently than those not in the discipline of history, and helped confirm that students could learn to "think like historians."

Beginning in the 1970s, the United Kingdom's Economic and Social Research Council funded a program called Concepts of History and Teaching Approaches 7-14 (CHATA), whose task was primarily to track how students' thoughts about history changed over time (Lee, 2004). It explored students' metahistorical second-order

disciplinary understandings such as evidence, accounts, cause, and rational understanding. Based on 320 student responses to questions regarding the Roman Empire and some of the inherent challenges of "knowing" such a complicated time, Lee summarized the findings as such: "Responses…display an awareness of key features of historical accounts, over and above defects in the quantity or quality of knowledge or the defects or partialities of authors. There is some sign of the idea that accounts are constructions, not just conjunctions of facts…(though) the relation between ideas about problems of knowledge and problems of authorship need further work" (p. 154). His interpretation of CHATA data supported the assertion that students can and do develop historical consciousness when asked guiding questions and that "history education in schools should give students an intellectual apparatus for handing history. No one else will" (p. 155).

Other studies suggested that students do not exhibit historical thinking skills readily or without being taught. Cassedy, Flaherty, & Fordham (2011) examined discussions of a focus group of students aged 13-14 regarding their perceptions of historical interpretations and found that "students are most likely to adopt the positions of simple realism and simple subjectivism, often bouncing blindly between the two. Some students suggested that the explanatory power of an interpretation comes from its relationship to 'truth', while others emphasized that, because all interpretations are constructed, they must all be equally valid" (p. 18). This supports the idea that students need to be aided and guided in their attempts to understand how history is made; without it they accept that history interpretations are either all true or all false.

Ferretti, MacArthur, and Okolo (2001) conducted a quantitative study with

students in a fifth-grade classroom and found that when historical thinking methods were used, students had an improved understanding of historical content and the processes of historical inquiry and more favorable attitudes about their self-efficacy in social studies (p. 67). Other studies show that expert students have a better sense of documents as evidence. Perfetti, Britt, and Georgi (1995) found that college-level students can find bias in historical accounts, but do not pay attention to the primary evidence. Rouet, Britt, Mason, and Perfetti (1996) found that college-level students with little experience in history can decipher and understand the intention of varying historical sources. These studies suggest that while expertise can indeed aid in the understanding of historical texts and intentions, those without a history background are also able to interpret and distinguish bias in historical texts.

Lesh (2011a) used the varying perspectives of primary sources to demonstrate that teenage students can indeed learn to think historically. His qualitative study provided examples of how students reconciled the facts when different sources say different thing and of some of the key questions that aided in understanding the complex time period and historical players. He summarized the study by explaining: "After traveling the investigatory path, examining, comparing, and contrasting a variety of historical sources, my students draw reasoned evidentiary conclusions … rather than simply memorizing a set of facts they actually wrestled with evidence and applied their interpretations to the question at hand" (p. 19). His study suggests that given the right sources and asked the right questions, students can learn to think historically.

In their foundational study about the use of primary documents as evidence of historical knowing, Leinhardt and Young (1998) demonstrated that despite a year of reading and writing about sources, students did not necessarily come to know more about history after a year of writing about it. A more recent study found that students' understanding of historical thinking improved through writing when they were explicitly taught how to read for historical understanding, i.e., supported through specific teaching strategies to use annotation, interpretation, and perspective recognition (Monte-Sano, 2011). In essence, writing and reading improved historical understanding when taught not as separate endeavors but "rooted in thinking—not just basic comprehension, but questioning texts, recognizing and evaluating authors' opinions" (p. 241).

Monte-Sano's in-depth case study about historical writing instruction (2008) found that all historical writing instruction is not equal: the use of varied, complex, and multi-authored historical texts enabled students to gain a sense of historical interpretation better than those that just read the textbook. The study also suggested that teachers can increase student ability to write evidence-based historical essays through approaching history as evidence-based interpretation and putting students in the role of developing interpretations, among other things (p. 1073).

Why History Teachers Use Certain Methods

Accepting that historical inquiry is currently the "best practice" for history teachers, it still must be acknowledged that teachers do indeed have a choice when deciding the methods they use in their classrooms. This question—why do teachers

choose to teach the way they do—has been explored through several lenses, such as teacher beliefs, teacher content knowledge, teacher training programs, and teacher development (Davis, Yeager, & Foster, 2001; Richardson, 1990; Shulman, 1986; Stearns, Seixas, & Wineburg, 2000; Wineburg, 1991).

Teacher Background and Beliefs

Wilson and Wineburg (1988) highlighted how people representing different disciplines view the purpose and objective of learning history. Their case studies analyzed six novice social studies teachers with a broad range of backgrounds to determine if their perceptions of history varied, and if so, how much. The categories of the interview questions addressed the roles of fact, interpretation and evidence, chronology and continuity, and causation. What Wilson and Wineburg found interesting was, "the way in which our teachers' undergraduate training influenced their teaching. The curriculum they were given and the courses they subsequently taught were shaped by what they did and did not know…it was their lack of knowledge that was most decisive in their instruction." "Not knowing that history is as much interpretation as fact," Wilson and Wineburg concluded, "they did not seek out alternative interpretations." For example, "Cathy and Fred (nonhistorians) believed that they had learned history once they had accumulated the names, dates, and events they read about in textbook accounts" (p. 534-5). Wilson and Wineburg also concluded that teacher backgrounds and beliefs influenced their goals for instruction. "Bill (historian) knew a great deal about the political interpretations of Roosevelt's economic programs but little about minority issues related to the New

Deal. His knowledge of multiple perspectives, however, made him aware of the need to search out such information. Fred and Cathy lacked that sensitivity. Thus, their planning time was spent reading textbooks and teachers' guides, becoming mired in factual information" (p. 536).

Other studies have supported the connection between teacher beliefs and practices, including Wood's case study of two social studies teachers and their beliefs regarding historical inquiry (2013): "The pedagogical content knowledge gained by HIPD (Historical Inquiry Pedagogical Development) appeared to enable both teachers to change their instructional practices to incorporate more active learning that encouraged domain-specific critical thinking skills" (p. 220). The study also showed that sustained use of quality professional development can impact teacher beliefs and practices.

Teacher Preparation Programs and Professional Development Experiences

Several studies within teacher preparation programs have examined either emergent teachers or novice teachers recently graduated to determine how and what these soon-to-be and new teachers think and learn about historical thinking. In her descriptive study about using history labs in a methods course, Wood (2012) demonstrated how presenting historical problems as investigations can help preservice teachers feel like historians. She presented historical research as mysteries and challenged her students to explore sources, multiple perspectives, and in-depth analysis in order to "solve" them. Summarizing her work, Wood wrote: "Problem-based learning, history labs, the inquiry process, and reflective practice offer powerful

ways to facilitate teacher candidates' growth in their own historical thinking and provide a model for use in their future classrooms" (p. 564).

In their study of student performance based on continuous professional development of teachers through on the Teaching American History Project Grant (TAH), De La Paz, Malkus, Monte-Sano, & Montanaro (2011) found that teachers who participated in 40 or more hours of follow-up professional development had students with significant performance improvement. Continued networking within a group also changed teacher practices: "The data from our observations, survey, and activity log provide converging evidence that teachers with sustained involvement used the networking group as an opportunity to invest themselves in activities that led to changes in their knowledge of content and pedagogy. Teachers searched for primary sources extensively, in addition to allocating time for planning how to use documents in lessons and assessments" (p. 519). Other study results suggest that teachers would benefit from additional content knowledge development as well as sustained and deliberate efforts for professional development for pedagogical practices, especially in regard to how to locate, adapt, and teach using documents (p.522). Essentially, this study demonstrates that teacher professional development around primary documents can change student achievement, but it takes consistent and deliberate effort.

Kallemeyn et al. (2013) conducted a mixed-methods case study looking at the practices of teachers that participated in the American Dreams Project, a specific grant program under the Teaching American History program. The case study focused on three social studies teachers, asking what classroom practices related to historical thinking the teachers were using and why the teachers decided to use specific content,

skills, and instruction. The qualitative study explored teacher settings and schools as well as beliefs about students and suggested that what teachers bring into the classroom from their professional development experiences do impact their teaching practices. The findings provided examples of ambitious U.S. history teachers that used student-centered instruction and activities to help students think historically and concluded that, "professional development providers working in similar settings might also find it beneficial to incorporate additional approaches to help teachers understand their students, in addition to the historical content they teach" (p. 54). The findings suggest that what teachers believe about their students impacts the methods and sources they use to teach them about history.

Discourse Community, Community of Inquiry, and Community of Practice

Discourse communities (Swales, 1990) and communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) are models frequently being used to describe, explain, and possibly predict the nature of why teachers choose to teach the way they do. These frameworks will guide my research in regard to why teachers teach the way they do. The new way of thinking about history and history pedagogy rests on the idea that high school history teachers need to learn to "think like historians." However, there is concern that historians, as teachers of college-level history, do not impart this knowledge to their students and in fact teach their undergraduate courses much the same as high school teachers—with a focus on content. Sandwell (2014) explained that many professors, "take the path of least resistance and simply 'cover the content'…Pressured to provide such basic, general, and mass history education, historians may feel they have neither

the time nor the energy to explore with their students the disciplinary structures and methods of historical inquiry" (p. 84). Many others have agreed that most undergraduate classes in history do not offer historical thinking development. Sears (2014) explained this through a hockey class analogy: "The instructor…explains…that you won't be playing hockey in the class but rather learning about hockey: studying the development of the game over time, learning the rules, and reading biographies of the best players and accounts of the greatest games. This course is about studying hockey, not playing it" (p. 9). Duquette (2014) agreed: "Student teachers have very little experience in the historical thinking, because most, but not all, history classes received at the undergraduate level focus on learning a specific narrative" (p. 152). The implication is that most students are not be taught how to "do history" unless they study history in graduate school. Until then, they miss out on the content knowledge that would allow for that specific pedagogical content knowledge to transfer in their teacher practices. The goal of moving closer to "core" of history seems only possible through advanced graduate degrees, which may or may not be likely among high school history teachers.

Seixas (1993) argued this decades ago. He explained that in the realm of history, there is a fairly deep distinction between disciplinary history—the world of historians primarily working in academia—and school history where teachers work. Seixas called disciplinary history a "community of inquiry" and discussed how historians create historical knowledge through this community. First, he explained, the knowledge is not certain, but rather is a set of "warranted beliefs that come through a consensus in the community of inquiry"; "to the degree that there is a basic

consensus on aims and methods within the scholarly community, its knowledge appears to be warranted and grounded" (p. 309). But the problem arises when this set of "warranted beliefs" leaves the "consensual community" of historians and enters the classroom: "There is tension in carrying historical knowledge outside of the community of inquiry in which historical knowledge is grounded, into the schools where it is not…the products of historians' work are transformed into authoritative 'facts' to be transmitted to students" (p. 310). According to Seixas, this is highly problematic because instead of being discussed as a set of defendable beliefs that have been researched, argued, and accepted within a community of scholar peers, the beliefs are presented as facts to be memorized. "Knowledge is transformed from a provisional, dynamic ongoing conversation to a set of static set of verities" (p. 310).

Seixas pointed out something important within the community of inquiry that is derived from historians: that the community itself makes, creates, and accepts its own set of beliefs and "knowledge" and that this process is what historians do that others do not; other communities of inquiry do not produce or present historical "knowledge," they simply accept and digest it. This contradicts the most recent calls for school teachers to show their students to "do history" because "doing history" is precisely what historians have as their unique purview—something that others could never do because being part of the community of inquiry is precisely and exclusively what makes one able to "do history."

Seixas saw historians forming a "community of inquiry" similar to what Swales (1990) referred to as a "discourse community." This closed, exclusive scholarly academic discourse community does not, according to Seixas, include

elementary or high school history teachers. "There are few institutional supports for ongoing substantive conversation among teachers themselves. Nor do they participate in the historians' community of inquiry. As a result, they confront history not as ongoing, contested dialogue (as do historians), but as "received knowledge" - that is, knowledge received from historians. Moreover, they are likely to pass it to their students in similarly ossified form. If history were taught as a subject, rather than as one element of social studies, there would be a much clearer way for history teachers to become part of a community of inquiry transcending the boundaries between school and university, Seixas argued, thus paving a much clearer way for them to create a community of historical inquiry in the classroom. Seixas stated:

> Compare the situation of the social studies teacher with a strong history background with that of the historian, in respect to the institutional supports for such a community of inquiry. Although of course historians teach students, their academic lives largely revolve around research, writing, publications, reviews, and conferences, in which they actively critique each others' work. The ongoing conversation thus sustained among historians is responsible for the state of historical knowledge" (1993, pp. 103-104).

How History is Taught in Undergraduate History Courses

Calder (2006) explained that higher education is part of the reason why teachers do not teach historical thinking. He referenced George Sellers's famous 1969 speech about "covering up" the real work of historians:

> Covering up history as historians know it is one thing that traditional surveys do very well--hiding what it really means to be good at history. But it does not have to be this way. Survey instructors should aim to uncover history. We should be designing classroom environments that expose the very things hidden away by traditional survey instruction: the linchpin ideas of historical inquiry that are not obvious or easily comprehended; the inquiries, arguments, assumptions, and points of view that make knowledge what it is for practitioners of our discipline; the cognitive contours of history as an epistemological domain (Calder, 2006, p.1363).

Calder explained that those who teach surveys do not care too much about facts, but rather that they care so little that they do not focus on the ways in which truths are learned and known: "Built on wobbly, lay theories of human cognition, coverage-oriented surveys must share in the blame for Americans' deplorable ignorance of history" (p. 1362).

Fischer (2011) vehemently agreed that "teaching historical thinking needs to be central to the actions of all history educators, whether in 5th, 8th, 11th, 14th or 17th grade."

> We need to move beyond silly debates about whether we should teach content or process—all history educators must teach both the content and process of history, striving for their students to gain historical understanding. The ideas of historical thinking delineated above are not mere appendages to an understanding of the past. Most university history programs conclude with a capstone course that requires students to master and display the skills of

> historical thinking. We do not conclude with a course that requires the memorization of all the important facts of American and world history (p. 16).

These arguments, supported by Sandwell (2014), suggest that the cyclic nature of how one learns history must be stopped and re-examined at all levels, not just in the high school history classroom. If college and universities do not address this problem, and "work with colleagues on the other side of campus" (Von Heyking, 2014, p. 67), meaning those in departments of education, then the cycle will continue, leaving historical thinking methods out.

Summary

The history of history education is one of twists and turns, starts and stops, but also one of conflict, agreement, consensus, and debate. It is, of course, much like the nature of history itself: in order to understand and believe it, it must first be read, analyzed, and interpreted. Based on the literature discussed in this chapter, it can be concluded that many scholars believe historical thinking is indeed the future of history education, and that it is important to know how and why teachers teach the way that they do.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The expressed need for students to learn how to think historically demands that teachers know how to teach history. As Cuban (2015) illuminated, there is not enough research or data about how high school history teachers are teaching in their classrooms. The purpose of this study was to fill this gap by asking a broad range of high school history teachers about themselves, their teaching practices, and some of their beliefs regarding the purpose of teaching history, professional communities and sense of belonging, and identities within those communities. In order to investigate the questions regarding high school history teachers, research was conducted using descriptive quantitative survey methodology. An anonymous survey was the preferred instrument for data collection because it elicited information about teaching practices from a broad group of teachers.

Rationale for Methodology

This study used a quantitative survey research model. While this study was concerned with how teachers teach, it was not an in-depth inquiry into specific personal experiences and processes, but rather an attempt to capture the methods that a large number of teachers report using, so a quantitative approach was appropriate. Descriptive surveys show patterns of responses by participants about their beliefs regarding purposes for teaching history, their feelings about belonging to specific communities, and their sense of identity within the field of history, all of which can be assessed using quantitative description and statistical analysis.

Based on the literature, there is a need for research on a broad scale in regard to history teacher practices within the United States (Cuban, 2015). While qualitative studies have shown to be effective at examining teacher beliefs and identities and their relationships with teaching practices for a small group of teachers, (Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Monte-Sano, 2008; Nokes, 2007), this study aimed to fill the gap by addressing trends across a broad range of high school history teachers, since surveys can capture comparable data from a large number of respondents. These descriptive data can provide insight into the variety of responses because they reveal patterns regarding specific practices, beliefs, and teacher identities.

Generalizability was important to this study because understanding some of the patterns that can be seen across a large number of teachers will help focus future approaches on how best to improve teaching and learning in high school history classrooms. Ruel, Wagner, and Gillespie (2016) stated that quantitative surveys can be a "highly effective method of measurement in social and behavioral science research…and can be extremely efficient and very effective in generalizability" (p. 2). Since the aim of this study was to examine patterns of teachers in an attempt to better understand the field of history education, a quantitative survey served the purpose better than an in-depth qualitative analysis. Therefore, a cross-sectional survey design was employed. Cross-sectional survey design focuses on a "snapshot of opinions at one point in time" (Ruel, Wagner, & Gillespie, 2016, p. 7) and was best for this research study. Survey methodology was chosen because it allowed the researcher to collect descriptive data from a broad sample of participants and reveal a better understanding of the overall picture of history education for a larger region.

In addition to using quantitative survey design in an attempt to know how many teachers use the practices they do, this study aimed to learn about teacher identity based on the theoretical frameworks of Swales (1991) and Wenger (1998). While quantitative studies are limited in the depth of data that are gathered, it is possible to probe respondents to reveal the kinds of beliefs and positions they have regarding their identity within communities. This study sought to draw patterns of teacher beliefs and identities and investigate whether they had relationships between their practices as well as direct further studies regarding teacher identity.

Research Questions

The objectives of this quantitative study were to investigate: a) who is teaching high school history in Oregon classrooms, b) how teachers report history is being taught in those classrooms, and c) why teachers teach the ways they do. This purpose of this research is to inform educators and historians about teacher practices, beliefs, and identities in secondary schools in Oregon, and offer insight as to which factors are related to individual teacher practices. The more specific research questions to be investigated are as follows:

I. Who is teaching high school history in Oregon classrooms?
    1. What are teacher demographic characteristics, and what classes do they typically teach in high school?

II. How do high school teachers describe teaching history in Oregon?

1. What kinds of sources, historical themes, preparation, and teaching objectives do teachers report using in their history classrooms?
2. To what extent do teachers report using historical thinking?

III. Why do teachers teach the way they do?

1. Where do teachers attribute developing their understanding of what and how to teach history? What beliefs do they report about the contribution of their education?
2. What beliefs do teachers offer in regard to teaching history? What beliefs do they assert in terms of purposes and truths about history?
3. What kinds of communities do teachers describe belonging to? What identities do they claim in relation to these communities?
4. What relationships can be inferred between high school social studies teachers' identifications of contributing influences, beliefs, community membership and identity descriptions of their teaching practices and these factors:
   i) Education Experiences
   ii) Teacher Beliefs
   iii) Teacher Communities
   iv) Teacher Identities?

Setting

The setting was school districts in the state of Oregon. Oregon was selected because it represents a state that has some generalizability to other states as it adheres

to typical requirements in regards to social studies: students are required to take three credits of social sciences for graduation but they are not required to take a social science test to graduate (ODE, Kenna & Russell, 2014). Oregon has also adopted the National Council for the Social Studies guidelines for teaching social studies, which is the most frequently adopted set of guidelines (Kenna & Russell, 2014). Therefore, Oregon typifies what most states expect and require in terms of high school social studies and can be more easily generalizable.

One hundred and ninety-nine school districts were listed on the Oregon Department of Education website, and districts were chosen for participation in this survey through the use of a random number generator to achieve a cluster sample. Once districts were chosen, social studies teachers were counted by use of district or specific school websites until at least three hundred teachers were identified. While it was the intent of this study to obtain a random sample of history teachers, on occasion a district or school would not list the social studies teacher email addresses, so fourteen school districts were excluded from the study. Five districts had no high school so they were excluded, and three districts had only a charter high school so they were excluded because charter schools do not necessarily represent typical public schools and would not be generalizable. The fourteen school districts that were excluded due to a lack of email addresses listed by department were from ten different counties, and the population of those counties varied greatly. According to the 2010 Census Bureau data, one excluded district was from a large urban county with over 700,000 residents, three of the counties were large to mid-sized counties with between 300,000-400,00 residents, and two counties had mid-sized populations of 100,000-

200,000 residents (census.gov). The remaining four counties had fewer than 100,000 residents in their counties, and two had fewer than 10,000. The excluded schools do not represent a particular demographic as they represent schools from urban, suburban, and rural counties. This means that while the cluster sample was purposive, not random, it likely still represents a sample of teachers that are representative of the general population of Oregon high school history teachers.

A final total fifty-five districts were included in the study. Thirty of the thirty-three Oregon countries were represented by the sample of the fifty-five school districts. The districts selected represent over a quarter (27.63%) of all the districts in the state and each of the three regions demarcated by the Oregon Department of Education are represented in the study (Barrick, 2016). Of these fifty-five school districts, thirty-two had three or fewer teachers listed as high school social studies teachers. Twelve districts listed only one high school social studies teacher in the entire district. Seven of the fifty-five districts listed more than ten teachers. Of the two districts with the largest number of high school social studies teachers listed, one listed seventy-five teachers and the next listed fifty-two teachers. Though demographic information regarding the specific districts was not obtained, it is safe to assume that some of the districts that listed only one high school social studies teacher are rural districts, while those with dozens of high school social studies teachers are more populated and likely suburban or urban districts. On five occasions, a district posted email addresses of teachers at one high school and not another, so some high school social studies teachers are represented and others are not, even within the same school district.

Participants and Participant Sampling

Once districts were selected and added to the list, the websites of these school districts were located and the email addresses of teachers listed as social studies teacher at high schools in the district were collected. Teacher email addresses were added until there were at least 300 teachers collected. The final total of teacher email addresses was 359; all these teachers were invited to participate in the study.

The breadth of the survey reduced coverage error as described by Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2009). The benefits of this selection method are that the teachers asked to take the survey represent a purposive sample of all social studies teachers in the state. Another benefit is that participants had no degree of obligation in completing the survey, thus reducing the measurement error that could otherwise occur (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). One rationale for using teacher email addresses collected from public district websites as opposed to national or state listservs that may have garnered higher response rates and a larger sample was the intentionality of the survey itself. Due to the established research gap, which is lack of information and understanding of a broad range of social studies teachers, it did not fit the purpose of this study to limit the sample to those who are already participating in some sort of social studies network or communities, even if only via a listserv. Although the selection sample was not random due to the elimination of districts that did not publish their teacher email addresses on their websites, there were no other parameters that inhibited these teachers from being selected for the survey, which made the study sample less likely to be biased or representative of a certain kind of social studies teacher.

One limitation to this data collection process was that teachers who chose to participate by taking the survey represented teachers willing and able to participate in education research and are not necessarily generalizable to all high school social studies teachers. Another limitation to this selection method was the risk of a small response rate due to teachers choosing not to complete the survey.

Design and Procedures

This study surveyed social studies teachers in high schools throughout the state of Oregon. Participants whose email addresses were selected to complete the survey were sent an email in early to mid-November with the cover letter describing the purpose of the study as well as the hyperlink to the survey itself, both of which can be found in Appendix A. The cover letter introduced the researcher, clearly stated that participants are not required to respond, and that their participation is completely anonymous. The survey was self-administered and was distributed by Qualtrics, a survey-design program licensed by the University of Portland. Participants were then sent another email approximately one week after they received the first email asking for their participation, as a reminder for those who had not yet responded to the survey and with appreciation for those that had already completed it. This process was appropriate since the population was assumed to be literate and familiar with the internet. The process concluded by mid-November.

Instrument

This study used a survey as the primary data collection tool for descriptive purposes. "Survey research is a highly efficient way to gather data in a number of settings and for a variety of purposes" (Ruel, Wagner, & Gillespie, 2016, p. 4) and was the best approach for this study's quantitative research questions. Questions focused on demographic information of teachers, methods and practices used in the classroom, and teacher beliefs, sense of community, and self-reported identities within those communities. The survey was self-administered.

There were three main categories of the survey: (a) Teacher Demographic Information and Education Experiences, (b) Teacher Sources, Preparation, Practices, and History Teaching Objectives, and (c) Teacher Beliefs about History, Teacher Sense of Belonging in Communities, and Teacher Identity within Communities.

The survey instrument was constructed by the researcher based on scholarly literature related to historical thinking practices, purposes, and communities of practice. The questions about teacher practices were grounded on the literature regarding historical thinking practices (Kallemeyn et al., 2013; Wineburg, 1993). Questions were also grounded on the theoretical frameworks of community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and discourse community (Swales, 1990) and included questions that probed the use of a shared repertoire, such as primary sources, and a common lexis, such as historiography. Questions that asked participants about their communities, their identities, and their beliefs about history were also grounded on the theories of community of practice and discourse community, as they sought to understand participants' relationships to other social studies teachers, historians, or other groups

as well as their own conceptions of history and the role of history teachers and historians in the discourse community. These questions probed whether teachers have a set of common goals (Swales, 1990) and joint enterprise (Wenger, 1998) in order to understand whether they are indeed part of a community of practice or discourse community.

Teacher demographic information.

Demographic information pertaining to the individual teacher, the level and courses she teaches, and other information about individual demographics was modeled closely on a survey instrument in the study by Paek et al., (2005). The survey included demographic questions such as:

1. What is your gender and ethnicity?
2. How long have you been teaching?
3. What is your bachelor's degree?

Teacher practices and objectives.

The survey also investigated practices teachers are using in their classroom as well as objectives of teaching history. The questions regarding teacher practices and objectives were primarily based on the surveys used by Kallemeyn et al., (2013) and Ragland (2014). The survey included teacher practices and objectives questions such as:

1. How often do you do each of the following:
    a. Lecture, whole-group discussions, small group instruction, etc.

2. How often do you use primary sources with your students?
3. What do you claim as the primary objective of teaching history?

Teacher education experiences, beliefs, communities, and identities.

The survey also included questions meant to gather information about teacher education experiences, teacher beliefs regarding history and why it is taught, what communities teachers feel connected to, and how they identify within communities. These questions were guided by the work of other researchers and the theoretical framework of historical thinking and community of practice (Wenger, 1998; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988). The survey included questions on teacher education, beliefs, and communities such as:

Sample Questions:

1. Have you ever taken a historiography class?
2. What other roles or responsibilities do you have at your school?
3. How connected to a community of historians do you feel?

Validity and Reliability

To ensure instrument validity and reliability, the survey was reviewed by twelve doctoral students in the School of Education at the University of Portland. Feedback regarding phrasing of questions, length of survey, and unfamiliar or unclear vocabulary was identified and taken into account in the final version of the survey. Next, an expert in the field of high school social studies was consulted and his input and ideas regarding kinds of questions asked, length of the survey itself, and tone of

certain questions were taken into account as the final survey was constructed. Finally, members of the researcher's doctoral committee gave feedback concerning the nature of the questions, the kinds of answers that would be given, and overall structure and flow of the instrument, and appropriate adjustments to the instrument were then made. All these processes increased the validity that it is accessing the most appropriate information necessary to address the research questions. However, close attention was paid to how each question was linked to the literature and theory of history teaching practices and historical thinking. Concepts regarding teacher communities of practices (Swales, 1990; Wenger, 1998) as well as what is seen to be demonstrable practices of historical thinking processes (Kallemeyn, et al., 2013; Wineburg, 1993) were formulated into appropriate survey questions, thus increasing the strength of the instrument. The strong linkage to theory and intention is important as it supported more validity of the instrument itself. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal instrument reliability was not conducted because the responses of the survey were primarily nominal data and would not accurately be reflected in the calculation. All specific questions and references connecting questions to instruments can be found in the attached Appendix B.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are always a concern when research involves living people, and since this study was primarily investigating practices of current teachers, it does include potential risks for those people. However, the Internal Review Board at

the University of Portland granted approval for this study based on a series of preventative measures regarding ethical concerns before any research will take place.

The participants of this study were protected from harm in a variety of ways. Because they answered the survey willingly and anonymously, without risk of any information being released, there was no opportunity for harm to occur due to description of teaching methods or demographic information. The information was collected anonymously and therefore is not linked to an individual person. Consent forms explaining details and purpose were included in the survey. Teachers were aware of their role in this study and that their anonymity was necessary. The survey itself was optional and participation was not required, so there was no conflict of interest or authority issues regarding choice to participate in the survey or specific answers on the survey.

Role of the Researcher

In conducting this study, I was aware of my role as researcher. My name has been attached to this document and all others associated with this study, and it was important to disclose relevant information regarding the role of the human researcher in this process.

The background of a researcher is always relevant to a study because it creates certain biases and lenses through which the data are viewed. My educational background was relevant to this study because it gave me a unique lens in which to see and learn about history education. My undergraduate degree was a Bachelor of Arts in three majors: History, English, and Classical Studies. This provided me a broad

background within the liberal arts tradition. My Master of Arts was in History, specializing in European History. I then received my Master of Arts in Teaching, with a focus on secondary History Education. During the decade I was earning my college degrees I worked at various YMCAs throughout the country in urban areas with diverse populations of children. I then worked as an eighth-grade American history teacher for two years. I have been teaching Western Civilization within the History Department at a small private college in the Pacific Northwest for four years. I see myself as both historian and teacher, and feel my educational background in both fields of history and education makes my view of this study unique, targeted, and relevant. I am potentially biased in assuming that the relationship a history teacher has with the discourse community of the discipline of history accounts for the methods he or she chooses in teaching the subject in high school. I do not believe it is necessary for high school history teachers to belong to a community of historians to teach historical thinking, but I am curious about the relationships between the two. However, I tried to limit bias as I attempted to conduct surveys and investigate this relationship as openly as possible, without assumptions or pre-drawn conclusions. I also used a thoroughly vetted instrument.

Data Analysis

The purpose of the data analysis in this study was to investigate who is teaching history in Oregon high schools, what practices and sources they report using, and what kinds of relationships exist between their reported practices and their reported beliefs, communities, and identities. Descriptive statistics were used to

analyze the collected descriptive data. Descriptive statistics are commonly used in survey studies and comprise frequencies, percentages, measures of central tendency (the mean, median, and mode), as well as measures of variation, such as range and standard deviation.

Some data were analyzed through comparative and correlational methods. Certain questions that were grounded based on the definitional framework of historical thinking and the theoretical frameworks of community of practice and discourse community were grouped into categories: Teacher Practices, Teacher Source Kinds, Teacher Objectives, Teacher Education Experiences, Teacher Beliefs, Teacher Communities, and Teacher Identities. These particular responses were chosen to be correlated due to the format of the questions themselves, which required that the responses were given in Likert scales. Responses to these questions were coded into ordinal data that was used for correlations using Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient was used because the nature of the data was ordinal, which uses rankings instead of the actual data to find a correlation (Muijs, 2011). The questions chosen for correlational data were based on the categories of explanations that would show why teachers teach the ways they do and the practices teachers use in their classrooms, based on the literature. For example, questions that probed teacher beliefs were correlated with the responses teachers gave regarding their instructional methods because the literature suggested that teacher beliefs about historical thinking processes could be related to their practices (Kallemeyn et al., 2013). Other responses were correlated between categories to investigate whether there were relationships between the factors that may

be related to teacher practices, such as teacher beliefs and teacher education experiences. The data were analyzed using tools from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

In congruence with the purpose of this study, which was to investigate who is teaching history in Oregon high schools, how they are teaching, and to explore some of the reasons why they are teaching the way that they do, the data were analyzed to answer such questions. Correlations were used to determine if teacher practices had a relationship with teacher beliefs, communities, or communities and identities. Correlations were used to determine if statistically significant relationships existed and whether these relationships were found to be weak, modest, moderate, or strong based on the valued given by Muijs (2011): <+/-.1 = weak; <+/-.3 = modest; <+/-.5 = moderate; <+/-.8 = strong; >+/-.8 = very strong (p. 126). Chi-Square analyses were used to determine the statistical distribution comparing responses of two groups in order to understand if one group may respond statistically differently to a particular response.

Open-ended responses were analyzed for repetitive themes and ideas as well as connected to specific responses by participants on other survey items. The open-ended response data were grouped by these themes and used for further analysis of teacher identity.

Limitations

There were some limitations with this study. For one, in spite of efforts to make it random, the sample of the participants who completed the survey may not

represent the larger body of state or national history teachers and may not be generalizable. Oregon may represent a particular kind of high school history teacher due to its location or some aspect of its social studies teacher population. Also, the teachers who were selected may represent a certain kind of district that publishes teacher email addresses on their websites. There was also some nonresponse error since self-administered surveys are often and easily overlooked, and those who chose to take them represented a certain kind of teacher compared to those who chose not to participate. The validity of the data could be compromised because the study collected data that were self-reported, which means the answers have a potential to be inaccurate, exaggerated, or incomplete. There are also potential validity and reliability concerns with a survey that has been created by the researcher, though many steps were taken to ensure instrument validity and reliability through the use of piloting, expert reviewers, and multiple editions.

The study was also limited by the scale and design of the research method. Survey data have the potential to miss information due to limited or forced-responses, sometimes potentially masking what a respondent might prefer to answer. The study was also limited by the length of the survey itself. Many questions were removed from the final survey so as to make taking the survey a reasonable task to complete in approximately ten minutes. This limited the amount of questions on the survey and limited the amount of data collected. However, because the focus of this study was to understand on a broader scale what history teachers are doing in their classroom and ask whether or not that was due in part to the kinds of beliefs, communities, and identities they claim, survey methodology was the best instrument to get this amount

of information. In this way, the survey was an initial investigation into a complex and more nuanced question of how and why teachers practice how they do, and the results of this study will provide guidance as to where and what to investigate next.

Summary

Survey methods were best for this quantitative analysis of history teacher practices, beliefs and communities. The validity and reliability of the instrument was established through the process of content panels and expert reviewers, and questions were derived from existing and related research. The purpose was to assess on a larger scale who is teaching history in Oregon high schools, what practices and sources they use, and why they teach the ways that they do.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore high school history teacher practices and develop an understanding of why they teach the ways they do. The participants were individuals with email addresses listed as a high school social studies teachers who chose to respond to an anonymous survey. 186 participants initiated the survey, which is a response rate of 51.8%. The number of participants that completed the survey was 161, which is a 44.8% completed response rate.

High school social studies teachers participated by completing an anonymous survey and were asked approximately 30 questions (due to use of skip-logic, some teachers were asked 31 questions while others were asked 28) regarding the classes they teach, the sources and practices they use, their beliefs regarding history and history education, and how they feel about their communities and identities within those communities. Teacher-reported data were collected and is displayed below as descriptive data in Tables 1-23, including one open-ended question and its grouped responses. Certain answers were coded into ordinal data so chi-square tests and correlations could be calculated and are reported below in Tables 24-77. These answers were grouped by category: Kinds of Historical Developments and Historical Sources (Kinds), Teacher Educational Experiences (Education), Teacher Practices (Practices), Teacher Objectives for History (Objectives), Teacher Beliefs about the Discipline of History (Beliefs), Teacher Communities (Communities), and Teacher Identities within Communities (Identities).

The data gathered is reported in the order as following:

1. Teacher Characteristics, such as years of experience, classes taught, etc.
2. Teacher Practices
3. Teacher Objectives
4. Teacher Education Experiences
5. Teacher Beliefs
6. Teacher Communities
7. Teacher Identities
8. Correlations between all the above

Descriptive Data Results

Teacher Characteristics

Teacher characteristics were self-reported and included gender, number of years teaching, and race or ethnicity. Table 1 reveals that within the sample, male high school social studies teachers outnumbered female teachers nearly 2 to 1 (62.7% males compared to 35.4% females). Information regarding how many years the respondents have been teaching is also revealed in Table 1; the category receiving the most responses was teachers that have taught 20 years or more (37.3%). Eighteen teachers (9%) reported to having taught for 28 or more years. The percentages of teachers who report having taught for fifteen or more years is a majority of the teachers at 54.7%. The sample of teachers is predominantly white (90%) with small percentages of other races or ethnicities. According to these data, the majority of

teachers in this sample are white males that have been teaching for fifteen or more years.

Table 1

Teacher Characteristics

		# of Teachers	% of Teachers
Gender			
	Male	101	62.7
	Female	57	35.4
Years Taught			
	0-4	23	14.3
	5-9	23	14.3
	10-14	27	16.8
	15-20	28	17.4
	20 or more	60	37.3
Race/Ethnicity			
	American Indian or Alaska Native	2	1.2
	Asian	4	2.5
	Black or African American	0	0.0
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	0	0.0
	White	144	90.0
	Multiple	6	3.7
	Other	12	7.5

Teachers reported their school roles and responsibilities other than as a social studies teacher. Table 2 describes that 20.5% do not have any role other than as a social studies teacher, and over a third report have a role as a coach (39.13%) and

42.86% are members of a professional learning community. Few report being members of a diversity or equity team (6.83%).

Table 2

Teacher Self-Reported Roles and Responsibilities at School

	# of Teachers	% of Teachers
Administrator	0	0.00
Club leader or director	52	32.30
Coach	63	39.13
Department Chair	33	20.50
Diversity/Equity team member	11	6.83
Professional Learning Community (PLC) or Team member	69	42.86
Other	31	19.25
I have no other roles at my school other than a social studies teacher	33	20.50

In Table 3, the data shows that a majority of teachers in this sample teach US History (88.07%), and almost a third of the respondents teach Global or World History (27.84%). 22% of teachers (41 teachers) report teaching an Advanced Placement course.

Table 3

Classes Taught as Reported by Teacher Respondents

	# of Teachers	% of Teachers
US History	155	88.07
AP US History	34	19.32
AP European History	12	6.82
European History	37	21.02
IB History	13	7.39
Global or World History	49	27.84
Other	91	51.70

Teacher Practices

The following section addresses the questions that were asked of teachers about the kinds of sources, practices, and objectives they use in their history classrooms. It includes the specific questions about the historical themes teachers emphasize, the kinds of primary sources they use, and the pedagogical methods they employ and how often they do so. Teachers were also asked how much emphasis they place on specific objectives regarding their history classes. The instrument asked respondents to answer several questions addressing the kinds of history as well as the pedagogical methods they used in their classrooms. Questions addressed categories of historical content, resources used for learning a lesson, resources teachers expect students to use when learning a lesson, categories of primary sources used, and specific amounts of time and emphasis teachers place on various pedagogical methods. Table 4 reveals that all teachers reported placing some emphasis on political, economic, and social developments, while several teachers (16.37%)

reported placing No Emphasis on Military Developments. There is a similar trend as evidenced in Table 5 regarding how often teachers use primary sources in those related categories, with over 40% of teachers using political or social sources 3-4 times a month whereas about the same number of teachers (38.75%) use military sources never or almost never. Few teachers report using primary sources daily: nine teachers use cultural sources daily, while only three use military and only five use political and social sources daily.

Table 4

Amount of Emphasis Teachers Report Giving to Historical Developments

	Significant Emphasis	More Emphasis	Some Emphasis	No Emphasis
Political events: revolutions, elections, leaders, etc.				
Percent	49.42	38.95	11.63	0.00
Count	85	67	20	0
Military practices and developments: battle strategy, war, weaponry, etc.				
Percent	5.85	16.37	61.40	16.37
Count	10	28	105	28
Economic developments: trade, industry, agriculture, etc.				
Percent	32.37	46.24	21.39	0.00
Count	56	80	37	0
Social developments: every day life, roles of women, social classes, marginalized groups, etc.				
Percent	52.02	37.57	10.40	0.00
Count	90	65	18	0

Table 5

Teacher Self-Reported Frequency of Categorical Primary Sources

	Daily	Once a Week	3-4 Times a month	Once a month	Never or almost never
Military sources: treaties, battle plans, etc.					
Percent	1.88	7.50	15.00	36.88	38.75
Count	3	12	24	59	62
Political sources: laws, speeches, etc.					
Percent	3.13	26.25	41.88	26.25	2.50
Count	5	42	67	42	4
Social sources: diaries, letters, etc.					
Percent	3.11	25.47	40.37	27.95	3.11
Count	5	41	65	45	5
Cultural sources: art, music, dance, etc.					
Percent	5.59	23.60	29.19	32.30	9.32
Count	9	38	47	52	15

This study also inquired how teachers report teaching history, specifically in terms of primary sources, pedagogical methods, and emphasis of practices. Table 6 addresses how teachers use primary sources in their classroom. Teachers were asked to select as many answers as needed. Nearly all teachers (92.07%) reported they use primary sources to gain multiple perspectives of people in the past, and no answers received less than 50%. In Table 7, teachers reported how often they employ particular instructional activities in the classroom. The results were varied across activities and frequency, but very few reported that they never or almost never lecture

or use teacher-led whole class discussions (less that 5%), and no teacher said they use student presentations daily.

Table 6

Teacher Self-Reported Use of Primary

	# of Teachers	Percent of Teachers
I do not use primary sources in my classroom	0	0.00
As content knowledge	113	68.90
To gain multiple perspectives of people in the past	151	92.07
To read, arrange, and analyze them to construct a thesis or historical narrative	98	59.76
As evidence to piece together what happened in the past	129	78.66
To develop historical inquiry	108	65.85
To support and complement the textbook	84	51.22
Other:	5	3.05
Total	164	100.00

Table 7

Teacher Report of Frequency of Use for Instruction Methods

	Daily	Once a Week	3-4 Times a Month	Once a month	Never or Almost never
Lecture					
Percent	28.83	46.63	15.34	4.29	4.91
Count	47	76	25	7	8
Teacher-led whole group discussions					
Percent	33.95	40.12	17.90	7.41	0.62
Count	55	65	29	12	1
Small group discussions					
Percent	19.51	36.59	22.56	14.63	6.71
Count	32	60	37	24	11
Individual Instruction					
Percent	22.29	24.20	19.11	12.74	21.66
Count	35	38	30	20	34
Socratic Seminars					
Percent	1.27	8.28	14.65	43.95	31.85
Count	2	13	23	69	50
Group Assignments					
Percent	6.71	27.44	29.88	31.71	4.27
Count	11	45	49	52	7
Student Presentations					
Percent	00.0	6.71	12.20	65.24	15.85
Count	0	11	20	107	26

Table 8 describes how much emphasis teachers report placing on specific focus areas of history. Two-thirds (66.67%) of teachers reported they place significant emphasis on understanding themes and connections between topics, and about the same number of teachers (65.85%) selected that they place some emphasis on learning facts, events, names, and dates. None of the remaining received more than 50% of teacher selections. No teachers selected that they place no emphasis on understanding

themes and connections between topics, viewing history through multiple perspectives, and developing skills for supporting claims. Eight teachers reported that they place no emphasis on learning facts, dates, names, and events, and twice that amount (16) said they place no emphasis on developing an understanding of historiography.

Table 8

Teacher Reports of Emphasis Placed on Teaching Objectives

		Significant Emphasis	More Emphasis	Some Emphasis	No Emphasis
Learning facts, events, dates, names					
	Percent	3.66	25.61	65.85	4.88
	Count	6	42	108	8
Understand themes and connections between topics					
	Percent	66.67	32.73	0.61	0.00
	Count	110	54	1	0
View history through multiple perspectives					
	Percent	46.67	43.03	10.30	0.00
	Count	77	71	17	0
Develop skills for supporting claims					
	Percent	47.85	39.26	12.88	0.00
	Count	78	64	21	0
Develop understanding of historiography					
	Percent	11.11	30.25	48.77	9.88
	Count	18	49	79	16
Other					
	Percent	36.36	27.27	27.27	9.09
	Count	4	3	3	1

Teachers were asked to think about how they would theoretically prepare for a history unit that they were only somewhat familiar with, and what would be the top three ways they would educate and learn the material themselves. As reported in Table 9, the trend in this study was that most teachers (70.76%) would read the textbook and teacher's resource guide, while very few teachers (only four total) would ask a historian or visit a historical site or monument. The top three ways in which teachers would learn about a subject were 1) Read the textbook and teacher's resource guide (70.76%), 2) Find and read several primary sources on the subject (61.4%), and 3) Read about it on websites (45.03%). Table 10 displays that most teachers reported they expect their students to learn the information from finding and reading several primary sources (71.93%), and only one teacher expects students to learn from visiting historical sites. Fewer teachers expect students to use textbooks to learn than they themselves use them to prepare (57.31% for students, 70.76% for themselves), and more teachers expect students to learn from YouTube or podcasts than they do themselves (35.09% for students and 26.32% for themselves).

Table 9

Preferred Ways Teachers Report Preparing for a New Unit

	# of Teachers	% of Teachers
Read the textbook and teacher's resource guide	121	70.76
Find and read several primary sources on the subject	105	61.40
Read scholarly articles on the subject	56	32.75
Research related historiography	29	16.96
Watch YouTube or TED talks or listen to podcasts	45	26.32
Visit a historical site or monument	4	2.34
Read a related historical fiction or biography	13	7.60
Seek out archival sources, such as the Library of Congress website	44	25.73
Read about it on websites	77	45.03
Ask a historian	4	2.34
Other	31	18.13
Total	171	100.00

Table 10

Teacher Reports for Student Expectations for Learning a New Unit

	# of Teachers	% of Teachers
Read the textbook	98	57.31
Find and read several primary sources on the subject	123	71.93
Read scholarly articles on the subject	35	20.47
Research related historiography	15	8.77
Watch YouTube or TED talks or listen to podcasts	60	35.09
Visit a historical site or monument	1	0.58
Read a related historical fiction or biography	13	7.60
Seek out archival sources, such as the Library of Congress website	35	20.47
Read about it on websites	53	30.99
Ask a historian	5	2.92
Other	26	15.20
Listen to instructor	68	39.77
Total	171	100.00

The following group of descriptive data includes answers teachers reported regarding their teaching influences, education and experiences, beliefs about teaching history and the discipline of history, sense of connectedness to communities, and their identities within communities. These answers informed the study by providing a

deeper understanding of teacher relationships to communities of historians and historical thinking.

Teacher Reported Influences

As can be seen in Table 11, the most frequently selected item for what has most influenced the way you teach was "my experience as a social studies teacher," with 78.98% of respondents selecting it. The next most influential experience was "interactions with colleagues," chosen by 51.7% of teachers, while only seven teachers selected "continuous interactions with college education or history instructors." About a third of the teachers reported that their high school, college, and professional development experiences most influenced the ways they teach. Examples of items listed as Professional Development were: "The Teaching American History Grant," "Project Based Learning," "IB trainings", and "AVID". Some examples of Other Influential Experiences were "My own personal interest in History," "Social Education magazine," "Theatre Experience," "My own travels and experiences," "Independent research," and "The really bad education classes I had that served as negative models." Because teachers were asked to select three answers, the total percentages exceed 100%.

Table 11

Experiences that Most Influenced Teaching

	Count	% of Teachers
My experience as a high school student	58	32.95
My student teaching practicum	46	26.14
My social studies methods class	38	21.59
My college history classes	65	36.93
My graduate history classes	25	14.20
My experience as a social studies teacher	139	78.98
Interactions with colleagues	91	51.70
Continuous interactions with college history instructor	4	2.27
Continuous interactions with college education instructor	3	1.70
Professional development experience, such as:	57	32.39
Other:	29	16.48
Total	176	100.00

Teacher Education Background

As evidenced in Table 12, teachers in this sample tended to have undergraduate majors in either history (45.7%) or education (21%), accounting for a total of 66.7% of the number of teachers. When combined with teachers with related social science undergraduate majors in Economics, Political Science, Government, and Sociology, that percentage increases to 84.4% of the sample. Examples of degrees listed under Liberal Arts were majors such as Anthropology, English, and Art History, while examples of those listed under Other include Business, Business Administration, and Management.

Table 12

Undergraduate Majors as Self-Reported by Teachers

Major field of study	# of Teachers	% of Teachers
History	85	45.7
Education	39	21.0
Economics	3	1.6
Political Science or Government	24	12.9
Sociology	6	3.2
Other Liberal Arts	32	17.2
Other	21	11.3

Table 13 displays data regarding teacher graduate degrees. The majority of teachers reported having earned a graduate degree. Of the 92.12% who state they earned a graduate degree, only eight teachers earned a Masters in History. A total of 77.1% of teachers have earned a graduate degree in Education, either an MAT or an M.Ed. Examples of other graduate degrees earned are a Masters of Athletic Administration, Political Science Masters, and two respondents reported earning a Juris Doctorate of Law degree.

Table 13

Teacher Graduate Degrees

	# of Teachers	% of Teachers
No Graduate Degree	14	7.82
History Masters	8	4.47
Education MAT	98	54.75
Education M.Ed.	40	22.35
Other	26	14.53
Total	179	100.00

Table 14 reports data concerning teachers' education regarding history graduate courses and historiography. Slightly more than half of respondents reported to have taken either a full historiography class or have had it incorporated into another class. 45.25% reported having never taken one at all. Most teachers have taken at least one graduate class in History while 41.9% have not. Historiography was defined in the survey with "Historiography is the body of techniques, theories, and principles of historical research and presentation, and includes methods of historical scholarship."

Table 14

Teacher Educational Experience with Graduate History Courses and Historiography

	# of Teachers	Percent of Teachers
Graduate classes in History		
Yes	104	58.10
No	75	41.90
Historiography Course		
I have taken an entire class	50	27.93
Yes, it was incorporated into other class	48	26.82
I have never taken historiography class	81	45.25

Teacher Education Experiences

The findings of this study indicate that most teachers agreed or strongly agreed that their undergraduate history classes focused on historical content, with only three respondents disagreeing. However, over 20% of teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed that their undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills. As evidenced in Table 15, teachers expressed a wide range of agreement on whether their college teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking, with 49.43 agreeing or strongly agreeing with that statement and 47.16 disagreeing or strongly disagreeing (3.41% selected Not Applicable).

Table 15

Historical Content and Historical Thinking Focus in College Classes

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not applicable
My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content					
Percent	58.52	37.50	1.70	00.0	2.27
Count	103	66	3	0	4
My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills					
Percent	20.45	53.98	19.89	3.98	1.70
Count	36	95	35	7	3
My college teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills					
Percent	8.52	40.91	31.25	15.91	3.41
Count	15	72	55	28	6
My graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills					
Percent	22.77	52.48	14.85	3.96	5.94
Count	23	53	15	4	6

Teacher Beliefs

Teachers were asked to report how much they agreed with statements regarding the nature of truths in history, the role historians have in the discipline of history, and the priority for high school history students. Table 16 demonstrates that the majority of teachers (75.93%) agreed with the statement that historians construct a narrative of significance about the past, and no teachers strongly disagreed with that statement. The majority of teachers (60.24%) disagreed or strongly disagreed that high school students should be taught the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking skills, and 39.75% agreed or strongly agreed with that statement. The number of teachers who agreed and disagreed with the statement that history is about objective truths not subjective truths was nearly equal (65 agreed and 69 disagreed), while eighteen teachers strongly disagreed and only five strongly agreed. Slightly more than half of teachers (51.55%) disagreed that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than everyone else.

Table 16

Teacher Beliefs about History

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
History is about objective truths not subjective truths					
	Percent	3.18	41.40	43.95	11.46
	Number	5	65	69	18
The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else					
	Percent	3.11	36.65	51.55	8.70
	Count	5	59	83	14
Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past					
	Percent	18.52	75.93	5.56	0.00
	Count	30	123	9	0
High school students first need to be taught the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking skills					
	Percent	6.83	32.92	52.17	8.07
	Count	11	53	84	13

Teacher Communities

Several questions were posed to teachers regarding the kinds of communities they associated with, which ones influenced or informed their teaching of history, and how closely connected they felt to communities within the fields of history and

education. Table 17 shows results when teachers were asked to choose the strength of their connection to other school communities. The results revealed in this study show that slightly more than half of teachers feel strongly connected to a community of social studies teachers (53.09%) and no teachers reported that they have no connection. The category that most teachers reported feeling no connection to is a community of historians (22.64%). Table 18 shows the professional organizations that teachers reported belonging to. The majority of teachers (61.49%) belong to Education Organizations and 31.68% belong to Athletic or Coaching Organizations. No other organizations received more than 20% of teachers belonging.

Table 17

Teacher Reports of Connection to School Communities

	Strongly connected	Moderately connected	Weakly connected	No connection
Historians				
Percent	5.03	26.42	45.91	22.64
Count	8	42	73	36
Social studies teachers				
Percent	53.09	39.51	7.41	0.00
Count	86	64	12	0
Teachers of other disciplines				
Percent	32.30	56.52	10.56	0.62
Count	52	91	17	1
Coaches/Athletes				
Percent	26.25	36.88	26.25	10.63
Count	42	59	42	17
Writers/Artists/Musicians				
Percent	3.13	27.50	49.38	20.00
Count	5	44	79	32

Table 18

Teacher Reports of Belonging to Professional Organizations

Answer	Count	% of Teachers
I do not belong to any professional organizations	35	21.74
Historical organizations	31	19.25
Education organizations	99	61.49
Athletic/Coaching organizations	51	31.68
Equity or Civil Rights organizations	26	16.15
Literature/Journalism organizations	7	4.35
Other social studies organizations	26	16.15
Other	7	4.35
Total	161	100.00

In Table 19, data regarding what other organizations inform respondents' teaching is displayed. Because respondents were permitted to select only one response, totals do equal 100%. Most reported that no other organizations inform their teaching (33.33%). Social and cultural organizations were the next most frequent selections (16.99% and 15.69%, respectively).

Table 19

Teacher Reports of Communities that Inform Teaching

Answer	Count	% of Teachers
No other organizations or groups inform my teaching	51	33.33
Community or neighborhood organizations	10	6.54
Cultural Organizations	26	16.99
Political organizations	16	10.46
Social organizations	24	15.69
Religious organizations	14	9.15
Other	12	7.84
Total	153	100.00

Teacher Identity

Teachers were asked several questions about their identity as a social studies teacher within their schools and as an historian. Table 20 reveals data regarding how teachers feel in regard to other social studies teachers, and 73.92% responded that they agree or strongly agree with the statement that they share the same beliefs and sense of purpose about teaching history. Almost all teachers (95.03%) reported that they either strongly agree or agree about sharing resources with other teachers, and 42.86% of

teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed that they collaborate with teachers from other schools.

Table 20

Teacher Identity Within Communities of Social Studies Teachers

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I share the same beliefs and sense of purpose about teaching history as other social studies teachers	Percent Count	14.29 23	59.63 96	24.84 40	1.24 2
I share resources such as primary documents and lessons plans with other social studies teachers	Percent Count	50.31 81	44.72 72	3.73 6	1.24 2
I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools	Percent Count	20.50 33	36.65 59	32.30 52	10.56 17

Table 21 displays the description of how teachers engage in history other than as a social studies teacher. Respondents were permitted to select as many choices that applied, and many selected several choices. Almost all respondents (91.98%) reported that they engage by visiting historical sites or museums, and every other category received at least 59% of respondent selections. The least selected choice was "I research history using primary sources."

Table 21

Ways in Which Teachers Engage in History Other Than as Social Studies Teacher

Answer	Count	% of Teachers
I do not engage with history other than as a teacher	2	1.23
I research history using primary sources	97	59.88
I read secondary historical research	130	80.25
I read historical novels and biographies	135	83.33
I visit historical sites and museums	149	91.98
Other	17	10.49
Total	162	100.00

Table 22 offers data regarding how teachers feel about themselves now compared to when they first started teaching. Teachers reported on two ways of feeling: if they feel more like an historian and if they feel more connected to a community of historians. As the data show, a majority of teachers feel more like an historian now (72.67% either agree or strongly agree) whereas a majority (60.63%) feel less connected to a community of historians now. When the data were organized by how respondents answered both questions, as displayed in Table 23, of the teachers who either disagreed or strongly disagreed that they feel more like an historian now, only six reported that they agree to feeling more connected to a community of historians now. On the other hand, sixty teachers who either agreed or strongly agreed

that they feel more like an historian now disagreed or strongly disagreed to feeling connected to community of historians.

Table 22

Teacher Identity as Historians and Connected to Community of Historians

		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I feel more like a historian now	Percent	18.01	54.66	22.98	4.35
	Count	29	88	37	7
I am more connected to a community of historians now	Percent	5.00	34.38	53.13	7.50
	Count	8	55	85	12

Table 23

Responses for Identity and Connection to Historians Grouped for Both Questions

Answers for Both Questions	# of Responses
Agree with feeling like a historian and Agree feeling connected to a community of historians	$n = 57$
Disagree with feeling like a historian and Disagree feeling connected to a community of historians	$n = 38$
Agree with feeling like a historian but Disagree with feeling connected to a community of historians	$n = 59$
Disagree with feeling like a historian but Agree with feeling connected to a community of historians	$n = 6$

Open-Ended Response

Teachers were asked to elaborate on the question, "Compared to when I first started teaching: a) I feel more like an historian now and b) I am more connected to a community of historians now." Sixty-four out of the 185 that originally began taking the survey gave a text response. It was the only open-ended question on the survey. The most frequent comments are grouped by general theme and displayed in Table 24, and a complete report of all responses as well as the participants' responses to the previous question can be found in Appendix C. Responses are grouped based on similar themes and ideas, and some responses applied to more than one option, so total numbers exceed 64. Responses were also examined as connected to the previous question. For example, many of the teachers (n = 21) who reported feeling more like a historian now explained that they *know more* about history now—they reported that they feel more like historians because of the time they have spent teaching and their life experiences, which have taught them more about history. Teachers who agreed that they feel more like historians now made comments such as: "I believe the more you teach history the more you understand and see the patterns of societies and larger connecting concepts throughout time," "I think as I have become a more experienced teacher, I feel as if I have more mastery over the content that I teach," "I have been teaching 28 years, my historical base is very good at this point" and "I work hard at being more knowledgeable every day through life experiences and the people around me." These responses demonstrate that teachers believe as they teach and know more about history, they feel more like historians.

Some teachers (n = 9) who reported feeling less like historians reported responses that explain it is because they do not conduct historical research, which they see as the primary role of an historian. Many teachers expressed this belief about history and the historians' role within the discipline: "Historians study and dissect history. As a teacher, I teach. Not study it myself or dissect it" and "Research and lesson prep have forced me to "shop" for the best information and the historians associated with it. I do not genuinely or formally engage in doing the work of a historian" and "During my time as an undergrad I felt like a historian because I was doing historical research and collaborating with historians. As a teacher, I am not doing research and inquiry that is specifically historically related. I am now teaching skills to students, and I use history as my avenue to do so" and "I do not write nor present my research to other historians at conferences. Nor do I regularly see other historians or attend history conferences." All of these comments demonstrate two teachers' beliefs: 1) that the historian's primary role is as a researcher and creator of history; and 2) that since they do not create or research history themselves, they are not historians. As Sears (2014) explained, "This sense of identity manifests itself in how some history teachers understand and carry out their role: passing on historical information rather than fostering historian thinking" (p. 17).

Table 24

Open-Ended Responses to Identity and Community of Historians

Comment Theme	# of Responses
I work in a rural school and feel isolated	6
I do not do historical research or I feel like an educator or teacher, not an historian	9
I am too busy and there are already too many demands on teachers	10
What I do is not valued by historians or my school	3
I do not interact with historians	8
Other pressures keep me from feeling like an historian –not same freedoms, not academic, etc.	3
My time teaching and experiencing life has taught me more about history	21
I feel like my school community or other communities connects me to a group of historians	7
Professional development keeps me connected to history	4
I am a new teacher	3
Total	74

Examples of statements that were grouped as *I am too busy and there are already too many demands on teachers* are, "Between planning, grading, and meetings there isn't time to be a historian" and "I feel so busy all the time. It is hard to build meaningful relationships with other historians because it takes time, discussions, sharing in today's classroom. There is some collaboration time build in usually at the

beginning of the year, but then it's back in the classroom with real life, which is busy." Some examples of comments that fall under the grouped theme of *I know more about history now* are, "I have been teaching 28 years, my historical base is very good at this point," and "I think as I have become a more experienced teacher, I feel as if I have more mastery over the content that I teach." This category had the most similarly themed comments with 21 responses.

Inferential Statistic Results

To better understand why high school social studies teachers teach the ways that they do, the relationships between teachers, their practices, and their beliefs, experiences, and communities and identities were examined. This study employed inferential statistical analysis to compare two groups and to find relationships within survey questions through chi-square tabulations and Spearman' Rho correlation bivariate analyses. All statistical analyses functions were performed using SPSS. For chi-squares, the sample was disaggregated into two groups, with subjected variables including men and women, those with a Masters in History and those without, Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate teachers, as well as those with an undergraduate major in history and those without an undergraduate major in history and related results are displayed in Tables 24-31. To determine if there was a relationship between how respondents answered one question or group of questions and another question or group of questions, correlation analyses was used. Those relationships are displayed in Tables 32-59.

Chi-Square Analysis

Several demographic characteristics were grouped to compare the numbers of their actual answers to the expected count based on statistical likelihood. This kind of analysis, called chi-square calculation, revealed data based on statistical significance and in this section, only those with statistically significant differences were reported.

Teacher demographics: Gender.

Chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether the group of women answered survey questions in statistically significantly different ways than the group of males. Few statistical differences between genders were found. Female responses significantly differed from males only on two questions: how much emphasis they place on the viewing history through multiple perspectives as a teaching objective (Table 25) and how connected they feel to a community of coaches (Table 26). Females responded that they place significant emphasis on viewing history through multiple perspectives more than males. Females report feeling less connected to a community of coaches and athletes, with only four reporting that they feel strongly connected while 38 men feel strongly connected to that community.

Table 25

Chi-Square Calculations of Gender and Objective to View History Through Multiple Perspectives

	Some Emphasis	More Emphasis	Significant Emphasis	χ^2
Female *n* = 57	4 (5.7)	19 (24.8)	34 (26.6)	6.08**
Male *n* = 104	12 (10.3)	51 (45.2)	41 (48.4)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 26

Chi-Square Calculations of Gender and Connected to Community of Coaches/Athletes

	No connection	Weakly Connected	Moderately Connected	Strongly Connected	χ^2
Female *n* = 57	7 (5.7)	19 (15.1)	27 (21.2)	4 (15.1)	17.22*
Male *n* = 102	9 (10.3)	23 (26.9)	32 (37.8)	38 (26.9)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate teachers.

Groups of teachers who reported teaching at least one Advanced Placement (AP) course or at least one International Baccalaureate (IB) course were analyzed using chi-square calculations to see if any statistically significant differences between those groups and the rest of the teachers emerged. After comparing the answers given by each group of teachers to the rest of the sample, a few statistically significant results were found, though because the number of teachers that reported teaching IB

course was only fourteen, the statistical significance does not necessarily make for practical significance. Non-AP teachers included IB teachers and non-IB teachers included AP teachers. As displayed in Table 27, AP course teachers have taken a statistically higher percentage of graduate courses in history than their non-AP counterparts. Table 28 shows a similar trend: IB course teachers have statistically higher percentage of having taken graduate classes in history than their non-IB counterparts.

Table 27

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Graduate Courses Taken

	Graduate classes $n = 104$	No Graduate Classes $n = 75$	χ^2
AP Teachers $n = 49$	35 (28.5)	14 (20.5)	4.923*
Non AP Teachers $n = 130$	69 (75.5)	61 (54.5)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 28

Chi Square Calculations for IB Course Teachers and Graduate Courses Taken

	Graduate Degree in History $n = 8$	No Graduate Degree in History $n = 75$	χ^2
IB Teachers $n = 13$	6 (2.1)	2 (5.4)	4.048*
Non IB Teachers $n = 166$	93 (96.4)	73 (69.6)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

AP and IB teachers also reported having earned graduate degrees in history at slightly higher percentages than their non-AP and non-IB counterparts. This chi-square data is displayed in Tables 29 and 30. In fact, all eight teachers with Master's in history teach either AP or IB courses.

Table 29

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Graduate Degree in History

	Yes Graduate Degree in History $n = 8$	No Graduate Degree in History $n = 177$	χ^2
AP Teachers $n = 49$	6 (2.1)	43 (46.9)	10.12**
Non AP Teachers $n = 130$	2 (5.9)	134 (130)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 30

Chi Square Calculations for IB Course Teachers and Graduate Degree in History

	Yes Graduate Degree in History *n* = 8	No Graduate Degree in History *n* = 177	χ^2
IB Teachers *n* = 13	2 (.6)	11 (12.4)	10.12**
Non IB Teachers *n* = 166	6 (7.4)	166 (164.6)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

As evidenced in Tables 31a and 31b, both groups of teachers also reported that they place more emphasis on the objective of developing an understanding of historiography than non-AP or non-IB teachers.

Table 31a

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Objective to Develop Understanding of Historiography

	No Emphasis (*n* = 16)	Some Emphasis (*n* = 79)	More Emphasis (*n* = 49)	Significant Emphasis (*n* = 18)	χ^2
AP Teachers *n* = 49	2 (4.6)	19 (22.9)	15 (14.2)	11 (5.2)	12.19**
Non AP Teachers *n* = 130	14 (11.4)	60 (56.1)	34 (34.8)	7 (12.8)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 31b

Chi Square Calculations for IB Course Teachers and Objective to Develop Understanding of Historiography

	No Emphasis (n = 16)	Some Emphasis (n = 79)	More Emphasis (n = 49)	Significant Emphasis (n = 18)	χ^2
IB Teachers n = 13	0 (1.3)	4 (6.3)	9 (3.9)	0 (1.4)	11.01*
Non IB Teachers n = 166	16 (14.7)	75 (72.7)	40 (45.1)	18 (16.6)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Tables 32 and 33 show data regarding how AP and IB teachers responded to the belief that history is about objective truths not subjective truths. AP teachers responded differently to the statement "history is about objective truths" than non-AP teachers responded bimodally in that they more often strongly agree with that statement but they also more often disagree. IB teachers strongly disagreed at rates higher than non-IB teachers.

Table 32

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Belief History is about Objective Truths Not Subjective Truths

	Strongly Agree (n = 5)	Agree (n = 65)	Disagree (n = 69)	Strongly Disagree (n = 18)	χ^2
AP Teachers n = 49	4 (1.4)	15 (18.2)	21 (19.3)	4 (5.0)	7.98*
Non AP Teachers n = 130	1 (3.6)	50 (46.8)	48 (49.7)	14 (13.0)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 33

Chi Square Calculations for IB Course Teachers and Belief History is about Objective Truths Not Subjective Truths

	Strongly Agree (n = 5)	Agree (n = 65)	Disagree (n = 69)	Strongly Disagree (n = 18)	χ^2
IB Teachers n = 13	0 (.4)	2 (5.0)	5 (5.3)	5 (1.4)	12.67**
Non IB Teachers n = 166	5 (4.6)	63 (60)	64 (63.7)	13 (16.6)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

AP teachers as a group had some responses that were statistically significant different from the non-AP teachers in the sample in the study. As Tables 34 and 35 report, AP teachers use social sources such as diaries and letters more frequently than

non-AP teachers, and they use small group instruction 3-4 times a month and once a week more often than the non-AP teachers.

Table 34

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Social Sources

	Never/Almost Never (n = 5)	Once a Month (n = 45)	3-4 Times a Month (n = 65)	Once a week (n = 41)	Daily (n = 5)	χ^2
AP Teachers n = 47	1 (1.5)	5 (13.1)	26 (19.0)	12 (12.0)	3 (1.5)	13.29**
Non AP Teachers n = 114	4 (3.5)	40 (31.9)	39 (46.0)	29 (29.0)	2 (3.5)	

Table 35

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Practices of Small Group Instruction Used in Classrooms

	Never/Almost Never (n = 5)	Once a Month (n = 45)	3-4 Times a Month (n = 65)	Once a week (n = 41)	Daily (n = 5)	χ^2
AP Teachers n = 48	3 (3.2)	6 (7.0)	12 (10.8)	24 (17.6)	3 (9.4)	9.87*
Non AP Teachers n = 116	8 (7.8)	18 (17.0)	25 (26.2)	36 (42.4)	29 (22.6)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 36 shows that AP teachers agreed less often and disagreed more often that historians construct a narrative of significance about the past. They emphasize developing skills for supporting a claim more often than non-AP teachers as noted in

Table 37. The group of AP teachers have a higher percentage who have taken a full historiography course and fewer who have not taken one at all than the non-AP teacher group, as evidenced in Table 38.

Table 36

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Belief that Historians Construct a Narrative about the Past

	Strongly Agree (n = 30)	Agree (n = 123)	Disagree (n = 9)	χ^2
AP Teachers (n = 46)	4 (8.5)	37 (34.9)	5 (2.6)	6.79*
Non AP Teachers (n = 116)	26 (21.5)	86 (88.1)	4 (6.4)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 37

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Develop Skills for Supporting Claims

	Some Emphasis (n = 21)	More Emphasis (n = 64)	Significant Emphasis (n = 78)	χ^2
AP Teachers (n = 47)	1 (6.1)	18 (18.5)	28 (22.5)	7.82**
Non AP Teachers (n = 116)	20 (14.9)	46 (45.5)	50 (55.5)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 38

Chi Square Calculations for AP Course Teachers and Have You Ever Taken a Historiography Class

	No (n = 81)	Yes, Incorporated into course (n = 48)	Yes, a Full Course (n = 50)	χ^2
AP Teachers (n = 49)	14 (22.2)	12 (13.1)	23 (13.7)	13.01***
Non AP Teachers (n = 130)	67 (58.8)	36 (34.9)	27 (36.3)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

IB teachers also had some statistically significant different responses to select survey questions than the non-IB group of teachers, though again, with such a small number of IB teachers, these data may have little practical significance. As Table 39 displays, IB teachers reported feeling less connected to a community of teachers of other disciplines than non-IB teachers. More IB teachers also feel weakly connected to a community of writers, artists, or musicians than non-IB teachers, as shown in Table 40. IB teachers also have a statistically significant difference in how long they have been teaching than non-IB teachers, in that the group of IB teachers are more clustered in the 15-19 years of teaching range and less so in the 20+ range. This is evidenced in Table 41.

Table 39

Chi Square Calculations of IB Course Teachers and Connection to Community Teachers of other Disciplines

	No Connection $n = 1$	Weakly Connected $n = 17$	Moderately Connected $n = 91$	Strongly Connected $n = 48$	χ^2
IB Teachers $n = 12$	0 (.1)	5 (1.3)	5 (6.8)	2 (3.9)	
					13.45***
Non IB Teachers $n = 149$	1 (.9)	12 (15.7)	86 (84.2)	50 (48.1)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 40

Chi Square Calculations of IB Course Teachers and Connection to Community of Writers/Artists/Musicians

	No Connection $n = 32$	Weakly Connected $n = 79$	Moderately Connected $n = 44$	Strongly Connected $n = 5$	χ^2
IB Teachers $n = 13$	6 (2.4)	5 (5.9)	1 (3.3)	0 (.4)	
					8.13*
Non IB Teachers $n = 149$	26 (29.6)	74 (73.1)	43 (40.7)	5 (4.6)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 41

Chi Square Calculations of IB Course Teachers and Years Taught

	0-4 years $n = 23$	5-9 years $n = 23$	10-14 years $n = 27$	15-19 years $n = 28$	20+ years $n = 60$	χ^2
IB Teachers $n = 13$	1 (1.7)	1 (1.7)	2 (2.0)	6 (2.1)	2 (4.5)	10.05*
Non IB Teachers $n = 149$	22 (21.3)	22 (21.3)	25 (25.0)	22 (25.9)	58 (55.5)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Teacher education: graduate degree in history.

Only eight respondents reported that they have earned a graduate degree in history, out of the 165 that have earned a graduate degree and of the 179 that answered that question. Chi-square tests were used to determine whether the group of history graduate holders had any significance in regard to other items on the survey. Because of the small number of participants with graduate degrees in history, statistical significance was difficult to achieve, but Tables 42-44 highlight the group if it reflects a notable difference with the entire sample, which included an additional role as a coach (Table 42), major in history (Table 43), and experience with historiography course (Table 44). Half of those with a history Master's degree were women ($n = 4$) and half were men ($n = 4$). Respondents earning a history Master's degree did not have a statistically significant difference in responding to how connected to a community of historians they feel now compared to when they first started teaching ($p = .788$). Of the eight, only two reported that they feel more strongly connected to a

community of historians now, while six either disagree or strongly disagree. When asked whether they feel more like a historian now, five agreed or strongly agreed while three disagreed or strongly disagreed, though this was not statistically significant compared to those without a graduate degree in History ($p = .218$). One historical topic that those with a graduate degree in history teach more than those without a graduate degree in history is social developments, described in the question as everyday life, roles of women, social classes, marginalized groups, etc.

Table 42

Chi Square Calculation of Teachers with History Master's Degree and Role as Coach

	I also have a role as a Coach at my school $n = 63$	χ^2
Yes, earned graduate degree in history $n = 8$	0 (2.7)	4.28*
No graduate degree in history $n = 178$	63 (60.3)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 43

Chi Square Calculations for Teachers with History Master's Degree and Major in History

	Do have a major in History $n = 85$	χ^2
Yes, earned graduate degree in history $n = 8$	7 (3.7)	5.886*
No graduate degree in history $n = 178$	78 (81.3)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Table 44

Chi Square Calculations for Teachers with History Master's Degree and Experience with Historiography Course

	Yes, Full course $n = 50$	Yes, emphasis was incorporated into course $n = 48$	No $n = 81$	χ^2
Yes, earned graduate degree in history	6 (2.2)	2 (2.1)	0 (3.6)	10.44**
No graduate degree in history	44 (47.8)	46 (45.9)	81 (77.4)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

While their responses were not statistically different than teachers who have not earned a Master's in History, five of the eight teachers with a Master's in history agreed or strongly agreed that high school students need to first learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills, as shown in Table 45.

Table 45

Chi Square Calculations for Teachers with History Master's and Belief that High School students first need to learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	χ^2
Yes History MA (n = 8)	1 (.6)	4 (4.2)	3 (2.6)	0 (.5)	.841
No History MA (n = 153)	12 (12.4)	80 (79.8)	50 (50.4)	11 (10.5)	

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, Expected Counts in parenthesis

Correlations

In order to identify strength of relationships between specific survey items, the correlation coefficient using Spearman's Rho statistical significance of relationship was calculated in SPSS. Questions were grouped into six categories: Kinds of Historical Developments and Historical Sources (Kinds), Teacher Educational Experiences (Education), Teacher Practices (Practices), Teacher Objectives for History (Objectives), Teacher Beliefs about the Discipline of History (Beliefs), Teacher Communities (Communities), and Teacher Identities within Communities (Identities). Within each category were several questions about specific aspects of teaching practices or potential influences, and those that could be coded into ordinal or numeric data were identified. There were typically three to four questions for each category that had been coded into ordinal or numeric data. The responses for each category were then systematically ordered to be run as a Spearman's Rho correlation

calculation in SPSS with each other category to investigate potential relationships that may reveal patterns within the data.

If two survey items were found to have a statistically significant relationship, the strength of the relationship is reported (*r*) as is the confidence level (*p*). Correlations were used to determine if statistically significant relationships existed and whether these relationships were found to be weak, modest, moderate, or strong based on the valued given by Muijs (2011): <+/-.1 = weak; <+/-.3 = modest; <+/-.5 = moderate; <+/-.8 = strong; >+/-.8 = very strong (p. 126). Tables 46-77 display these correlation calculations.

Kinds of Historical Developments and Historical Sources

Several relationships between kinds of history and other categories were found to be statistically significant, though mostly with weak or modest strength of relationship, and are reported in Tables 32-37 below. Kinds of history were categorized by historical themes or developments, including political, social, military, and economic. Kinds of sources were categorized in similar terms: political, military, social, and cultural sources. Teachers were asked how much emphasis they placed on specific themes or developments, while they were asked how frequently they use specific sources: daily, once a week, 3-4 times a month, once a month, and never or almost never. Kinds of historical developments and sources used were not correlated because they were too similar.

Kinds and practices.

There were several weak to modest statistically significant relationships between teacher instructional practices and kinds of historical themes and sources used. As evidenced in Table 46, the strongest of the statistically significant relationships was the practice of small group instruction and an increased frequency of all kinds of primary sources used in the classroom, though the strength of these relationships were weak to modest at best. The strongest correlation in these groups showed that teachers who more frequently use cultural sources also more often use Socratic seminars (.321, $p < .01$).

Table 46

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations Between Kinds and Practices

	Teacher Practices						
Kinds of History: Developments and Sources	Lecture	Teacher-led whole group discussion	Small Group Instruction	Individual Instruction	Socratic Seminars	Group Assignments	Student Presentations
Political Events	.086	.041	-.023	.027	.014	-.006	-.007
Military Practices	.087	.134	.085	.186*	.029	.019	.075
Econ. Developments	.214**	.146	.133	.117	.165*	-.069	.117
Social Developments	.039	.058	.158*	.221**	.119	.183*	.052
Military Sources	-.044	.088	.239**	.013	.085	.031	.165*
Political Sources	-.012	.031	.195*	.055	.127	-.106	.013
Social Sources	-.061	.010	.256***	.141	.174*	.089	.023
Cultural Sources	.026	.035	.229**	.194*	.321***	.125	.087

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 156-164 for all cases.

Kinds and objectives.

The scale used for the objectives of teaching history addressed relative emphasis, from no emphasis, some emphasis, more emphasis, to significant emphasis. As noted in Table 47, several weak to modest statistically significant relationships emerged. Teachers who responded that they place increasing emphasis on learning facts as an objective in their classrooms had a positively correlated relationship (.306 at the $p < .01$ level) with the increased use of military developments as a kind of historical focus in the classroom. While it can be said that teachers who place more emphasis on learning facts also more frequently focus on military developments in their history classrooms, this relationship is considered modest.

Table 47

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Kinds and Objectives

	Learning Facts	Understanding Themes	View History through Multiple Perspectives	Develop Skills for supporting claims	Develop Understanding of Historiography
Political Events	.139	.155*	.093	.042	.178*
Military Practices	.205**	.012	.130	-.074	.042
Economic Develop-ments	-.080	.340**	.216**	.128	.161*
Social Develop-ments	-.102	.226**	.312**	.234**	.202**
Military Sources	.306**	.078	.113	.228**	.281**
Political Sources	.064	.165*	.238**	.088	.138
Social Sources	.048	.133	.316**	.186*	.253**
Cultural Sources	.024	.148	.337**	.209**	.246**

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n range from 159-165

Kinds and education experiences.

Two trends could be seen when kinds of historical content were correlated with teacher educational experiences. First, as displayed in Table 48, there were several positive statistically significant weak to modest relationships between teachers who agreed that their college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content and both political and military developments and sources and social developments. The second trend was that teachers who agreed that their undergraduate history and education classes focused on historical thinking skills also showed increased use of cultural sources in their classrooms. The only significant correlation for those who agreed that their graduate history courses focused on historical thinking skills was the increased emphasis of social developments ($.202, p < .05$), and the only kind of historical sources that were significantly correlated to those who have taken a historiography class were social ($.160, p < .05$) and cultural sources ($.205, p < .01$), all which were weak relationships.

Table 48

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Kinds and Education Experiences

	My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content	My college undergraduate classes focused on historical thinking skills	My Graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills
Political Events	.191*	.135	.057
Military Events	.170*	.014	.008
Social Events	.175*	.264***	.202*
Military Sources	.156*	.150	.015
Political Sources	.265***	.163*	.011
	My college undergraduate classes focused on historical thinking skills	My teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills	Have you ever taken a historiography class
Social sources	.134	.025	.160*
Cultural sources	.234**	.161*	.205**

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Kinds and beliefs.

When teacher beliefs were correlated with kinds of historical developments taught and kind of primary sources used, several statistically significant weak to modest relationships emerged. The results are displayed in Table 49. Teachers who more frequently use cultural sources more often disagreed and less often agreed with the beliefs that the purpose for studying history is different for everyone else, historians construct a narrative of significance about the past, and high school students first need to be taught the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking skills. Teachers who use social and political primary sources more frequently also

disagreed with the statement that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else. Teachers who more often teach about political developments increasingly agreed with the statement that high school students first need to be taught the facts of the past before developing historical thinking skills.

Table 49

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Kinds and Beliefs

	Political Events	Political Sources	Social Sources	Cultural Sources
The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	.013	-.176*	-.263***	-.255***
Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past	.093	.019	-.128	-.174*
High School Students need to be taught the facts of the past before the develop historical thinking	.157*	-.004	-.068	-.254***

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Kinds and communities.

Teacher communities and kinds of historical developments and sources used in the classroom were found to have many statistically significant relationships when cross correlated. As noted in Table 50, statistically significant weak relationships existed with those that feel strongly connected to a community of historians, and the strongest relationship was between teachers that feel strongly connected to a community of writers, artists, and musicians and their use of cultural sources (.291, p

< .001). Teachers who feel increasingly connected to a community of coaches and athletes also more frequently focus on military developments and use political sources more frequently in their classrooms (.177, .185, respectively, $p < .05$).

Table 50

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Kinds and Communities

	Historians	Social Studies Teachers	Teachers of other disciplines	Coaches/ Athletes	Writers, Artists, Musicians
Political Events	.173*	.182*	.103	.021	.053
Military Events	.107	.216**	.063	.177*	-.031
Social Events	.200*	.131	.205***	-.088	.226***
Military Sources	.162*	.081	-.105	.153	.061
Political Sources	.025	.020	.070	.182*	-.048
Social Sources	.241***	.007	.026	.062	.118
Cultural Sources	.193*	.092	.096	.037	.291***

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Kinds and identity.

Table 51 highlights the relatively few statistically significant relationships between the kinds of historical developments and sources that teachers use and teacher

identities and sense of community. Teachers who increasingly share resources with other social studies teachers tend to more frequently focus on political (.206, $p < .01$) and social developments (.244, $p < .001$). Teachers who increasingly agreed that they feel more like historians and feel more connected to a group of historians spend more time on political and military developments. These were all weak relationships.

Table 51

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Kinds and Identity

	I share resources with other social studies teachers	I feel more like a historian now	I am more connected to a community of historians now
Political Events	.206**	.265***	.197*
Military Practices	.111	.207**	.164*
Social Developments	.255***	.028	.095
Military Sources	.070	.160*	.098

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Practices

Teacher responses to their instructional practices were correlated with other factors in this study and several significant relationships were discovered. Teachers were asked to choose how frequently they use the specific instructional practices listed based on the following scale: Daily, Once a week, 3-4 Times a Month, Once a Month, or Never or Close to Never. Only statistically significant relationships were reported.

Practices and practices.

Several significant relationships among teacher practices in the classroom were found when correlations were calculated using Spearman's Rho. As can be seen in Table 52, the strongest relationship was between teachers more likely to use small group instruction and those more likely to use individual instruction (.503, $p < .000$). The only statistically significant negative correlations were between the practice of lecture and small group instruction (-.198, $p < .05$) and lecture and student presentations (-.256, $p < .01$), both of which were weak. Socratic seminars were statistically significantly correlated with small group instruction and individual instruction and group assignments were statistically significant when correlated with student presentations.

Table 52

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Practices Correlated with Each Other

	Lecture	Teacher-led whole group discussion	Small Group Instruction	Individual Instruction	Socratic Seminars	Group Assignments
Teacher-Led Whole Group Discussion	.164*	--.--				
Small Group Instruction	-.198*	.308***	--.--			
Individual Instruction	-.088	.259**	.503***	--.--		
Socratic Seminars	-.157	.169*	.284***	.231**	--.--	
Group Assignments	-.143	.063	.181*	.181*	.102	--.--
Student Presentations	-.256**	-.080	.215**	.151	.170*	.205**

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 149-161.

Practices and objectives.

When teacher practices were correlated with teacher objectives for teaching history, several statistically significant weak to moderate relationships appeared. As reported in Table 53, teachers who more frequently lecture place decreasing emphasis on developing skills for supporting claims (-.309, $p < .01$) and more emphasis on learning facts (.185, $p < .05$). Teachers who place more emphasis on the objective of

viewing history through multiple perspectives also more frequently use small group instruction, individual instruction, and Socratic seminars as classroom practices.

Table 53

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Practices and Objectives

	Objective for Teaching History				
Practice	Learning Facts	Understanding Themes	View History through Multiple Perspectives	Develop Skills for supporting claims	Develop Understanding of Historiography
Lecture	.185*	.080	-.150	-.309**	-.145
Teacher-led whole group discussions	.027	.234**	.116	.056	.010
Small group Instruction	.047	.107	.297**	.228**	.199*
Individual Instruction	-.051	.024	.211**	.029	.069
Socratic Seminars	-.128	.164*	.324**	.183*	.267**
Group Assignments	-.128	.023	.190*	.128	.183*
Student Presentations	.001	-.003	.154*	.144	.204**

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n range from 155-164

Practices and education experiences.

Teacher practices and teacher educational experiences had several statistically significant weak relationships, as evidenced in Table 54. The teachers who agreed that their undergraduate history courses focused on historical content also increasingly used small group instruction (.234, $p < .01$). Teachers who have taken a historiography class reported using increasing frequencies of Socratic seminars (.164, $p < .05$) and teachers who reported that their teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills reported decreasing frequencies of lecture (-.172, $p < .05$).

Table 54

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Practices and Teacher Education Experiences

	Lecture	Small Group Instruction	Individual Instruction	Socratic Seminars
My undergraduate history classes focused on historical content	-.055	.234**	.177*	.036
My undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills	-.126	.143	.171*	.129
My teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills	-.172*	.183*	.180*	.109
Have you ever taken a historiography class	-.144	.192*	.089	.164*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Practices and beliefs.

Few statistically significant correlations were found when teacher practices were compared to teacher beliefs, and those that exist were found to be weak. As noted in Table 55, all but one of the statistically significant relationships was correlated with the belief that high school students first need to be taught the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking skills. Teachers who agreed with the statement that studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else had a weak to modest negative correlation with teacher-led whole group discussions (-.190, $p < .05$). The strongest relationship was a negative correlation between teachers who increasingly believe that high school students need to be taught the facts of history before developing historical thinking and those that increasingly use student presentations (-.206, $p < .01$).

Table 55

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Practices and Beliefs

	Lecture	Teacher-led whole group discussion	Small Group Instruct-ion	Individual Instruction	Socratic Seminars	Student Presentations
High School Students need to be taught the facts of the past before the develop historical thinking	.183*	-.118	-.176*	-.190*	-.172	-.206**
The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	.130	-.190*	-.095	-.150	-.050	-.097

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 149-161

Practices and communities.

There were several statistically significant weak relationships between the kinds of communities that teachers felt connected to and the practices they employed in the classroom. Evidenced in Table 56, the strongest correlations were found between the group of teachers who felt increasingly connected to a group of teachers from other disciplines also reported increased usage of individual instruction (.222, $p < .01$) and teachers who felt increasingly connected to a group of writers, artists, and musicians reported an increased usage of Socratic Seminars (.221, $p < .01$).

Table 56

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Practices and Communities

	Small group Instruction	Individual Instruction	Socratic Seminars	Group Assignments	Student Presentations
Historians	.141	.097	.125	-.017	.199*
Social Studies Teachers	.157*	.119	.078	.106	.069
Teachers of other disciplines	.142	.222**	.090	.027	.069
Coaches, Athletes	.044	.088	-.050	-.198*	-.016
Writers, Artists, Musicians	.109	.185*	.221**	.064	.030

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 152-161

Practices and identity.

When correlated with identity, two statistically significant practices surfaced, though the relationships were both weak to modest. As Table 57 demonstrates, teachers who more frequently lecture also increasingly agree that they feel more like historians now, and teachers who more often use student presentations report that they agree to feeling more connected to a group of historians now. No other statistically significant relationships were found between identification with historians and teacher

practices. There were no statistically significant relationships between how teachers felt about their identity in communities and their classroom practices.

Table 57

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Practices and Identity

	Lecture	Student Presentations
I feel more like a historian now	.199*	.092
I am more connected to a group of historians now	.062	.167*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, n ranged from 152-162

Teacher Objectives

Teachers were asked to choose how much emphasis they placed on specific objectives for teaching history in their classrooms. The scale they chose from was No Emphasis, Some Emphasis, More Emphasis, and Significant Emphasis. There were many statistically significant relationships between how much emphasis teachers reported and other factors.

Objectives and objectives.

Some teacher objectives showed statistical significance when correlated with other objectives. Table 58 reports the correlation data between these groups. Teachers who place increasing emphasis on viewing history through multiple perspectives are statistically correlated with those that place increasing emphasis on developing an understanding of historiography ($.312, p < .001$). The strongest correlation within teacher objectives is those who place increasing emphasis on

developing skills for supporting claims also place increasing emphasis on developing an understanding of historiography ($p < .001$). There was no statistical significance with those who place increasing emphasis on learning facts, events, names, and dates and any of the other categories.

Table 58

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Objectives and Objectives

	Understanding Themes	View History through Multiple Perspectives	Develop Skills for supporting claims
View History through Multiple Perspectives	.171*	--.--	--.--
Develop Skills for supporting claims	.197*	.271***	--.--
Develop Understanding of Historiography	.117	.312***	.322***

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 160-165 for all cases.

Objectives and education experiences.

The education experiences teachers reported were correlated with how much emphasis they reported placing on specific objectives for teaching history, and some weak to modest relationships were found to be statistically significant. As noted in Table 59, teachers who placed increasing emphasis on developing an understanding of historiography also reported agreeing that their graduate and undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills (.237, $p < .01$ and .256, $p < .01$, respectively). The strongest relationship within these categories was that those teachers who have taken a historiography course also place increasing emphasis on

developing an understanding of historiography as an objective in their classrooms (.310, $p < .001$). There was no statistically significant relationship between teachers who reported their graduate history classes focused on historical thinking and developing skills for supporting claims ($p > .05$).

Table 59

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Objectives and Education Experiences

	My Graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills	My college undergraduate classes focused on historical thinking skills	I have taken a historiography class
Develop Understanding of Historiography	.237**	.256***	.310***
Develop skills for supporting claims		.174*	.197*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$

Objectives and beliefs.

When teacher objectives were correlated with teacher beliefs, several statistically significant weak to modest relationships were found and are reported in Table 60. Teachers who place increasing emphasis on viewing history through multiple perspectives and developing skills for supporting claims and understanding of historiography often disagreed with the statement that high school students first need to be taught facts before they can develop historical thinking skills (-.270, $p < .01$, -.252, $p < .01$). Teachers who place increasing emphasis on developing understanding of historiography also agreed that they collaborate with social studies teachers from

other school s (.184, $p < .05$) while teachers who place increasing emphasis on viewing history through multiple perspectives reported feeling more connected to a community of historians now (.157, $p < .05$).

Table 60

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Objectives and Beliefs

	Learning Facts	Understanding Themes	View History through Multiple Perspectives	Develop Skills for supporting claims	Develop Understanding of Historiography
High School students need to be taught the facts before they develop historical thinking skills	.198*	-.027	-.270**	-.252**	-.027
I am more connected to a community of historians now	.072	-.081	.157*	-.051	.106
I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools	.057	-.084	.122	.073	.184*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 158-162 for all cases.

Objectives and communities.

Table 61 describes relationships between teacher school communities and teacher objectives for teaching history in the classroom. Only two school communities displayed statistically significant weak relationships: historians, and writers, artists, and musicians. Teachers who feel increasingly connected to a

community of historians often place increasing emphasis on learning facts, events, dates, and names (.160, $p < .05$), viewing history through multiple perspectives (.211, $p < .01$), and developing an understanding of historiography (.230, $p < .01$). Teachers who feel increasingly connected to a community of writers, artist, and musicians often place more emphasis on viewing history through multiple perspectives (.182, $p < .05$).

Table 61

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Objectives and Communities

	Learning Facts, events, names, dates	View history through multiple perspectives	Develop understanding of historiography
Historians	.160*	.211**	.230**
Writers, Artists, Musicians	-.008	.182*	.126

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 156-161

Objectives and identity.

After correlating teacher objectives and identities regarding history, only one statistically significant weak relationship emerged. Table 62 reports that teachers who place increasing emphasis on viewing history through multiple perspectives also feel more connected to a community of historians now (.157, $p < .05$). No other statistically significant relationships were found.

Table 62

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Teacher Objectives and Identity Regarding History

	View history through multiple perspectives
I am more connected to a community of historians now	.157*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, n range 157-161

Only two weak relationships were statistically significant between teachers' sense of community and their teaching objectives, as reported in Table 63. Teachers who share resources with other teachers also place more emphasis on developing skills for supporting claims (.202, $p < .01$), and teachers who increasingly agree to collaborating with social studies teachers from other schools place more emphasis on developing an understanding of historiography (.184, $p < .05$).

Table 63

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Objectives and Identity in Communities

	I share resources with other social studies teachers	I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools
Develop skills for supporting claims	.202**	.073
Develop understanding of historiography	.116	.184*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *n* ranged from 158-161

Education Experience

Teachers were asked questions regarding their education experiences and what they felt was the focus of some of their college history and education courses. Note that only teachers who responded that they had taken history graduate courses were prompted to answer the question regarding their graduate history class focus, so the number of the sample was 104, not 164 as found in the other data. Teachers could select their answers on a Likert scale of Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

Education experiences and education experiences.

Teacher education and experience was cross correlated and several statistically significant weak to moderate relationships were found. Table 64 displays these data. There was a positive correlation between whether respondents agreed that their education classes focused on historical thinking skills and their level of agreement with graduate classes focusing on historical thinking skills (.232, $p < .05$) and undergraduate classes focusing on both historical thinking skills (.399, $p < .05$) and historical content (.156, $p < .05$). There was no significant relationship between those who reported that their college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content and those who feel their graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills. There was a negative correlation (-.198, $p = .009$) between teachers who have taken graduate history classes and the belief that their undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills.

Table 64

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Education Experiences Correlated with Each other

	My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content	My college undergraduate classes focused on historical thinking skills	My Graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills
Have you ever taken a historiography class	.189*	.227**	.239*
My teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills	.156*	.399***	.232*
My Graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills	.037	.428***	--.--
Have you taken any graduate history courses	.058	-.198**	--.--

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 91 (for those who have taken graduate classes in history) -161

Education experiences and beliefs.

Only two statistically significant weak relationships between teacher beliefs and teacher educational experience were found when correlated. Table 65 shows that teachers who increasingly disagreed that history is about objective truths not subjective truths are more likely to have taken graduate classes in history (-.171, $p <$ .05), and teachers who increasingly disagreed that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else were more likely to have taken historiography classes (-.164, $p < .05$).

Table 65

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Education Experience and Beliefs

	Have you taken any graduate history courses	Have you ever taken a historiography class
History is about objective truths not subjective truths	-.171*	-.068
The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	-.079	-.164*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 91 (for those who have taken graduate classes in history) -161

Education experiences and communities.

Several statistically significant weak relationships emerged when teacher communities were correlated with teacher education experiences. As Table 66 displays, teachers who feel increasingly connected to a community of writers, artists,

and musicians were more likely to agree that both their college graduate classes and undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills (.233 and .210, respectively; $p < .01$). Teachers who feel more connected to a group of historians increasingly agreed that their college undergraduate history classes focused on teaching historical thinking skills (.181, $p < .05$) and were more likely to have taken historiography classes (.186, $p < .05$). Teachers who feel increasingly connected to a community of coaches and athletes reported that their college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content (.156, $p < .05$).

Table 66

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Education Experience and Communities

	My graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills	My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content	My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills	Have you taken any graduate courses in history	Have you ever taken a historiography class
Historians	.202	.099	.181*	.145	.186*
Teachers of other disciplines	-.111	.069	.105	-.230**	-.011
Coaches, Athletes	-.175	.156*	.041	-.103	-.069
Writers, Artists, Musicians	.233*	.094	.210**	-.009	.098

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 90-161

Education experiences and identities.

As noted in Table 67, there was only one statistically significant correlation between education experiences and identity of feeling like a historian, a weak positive relationship that showed those who reported to have taken graduate courses in history feel more like an historian now (.197, $p < .05$).

Table 67

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Education Experiences and Identity Regarding History

	I feel more like an historian now
Have you taken any graduate courses in history?	.197*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 160-161

Some statistically significant weak relationships were found when sense of community was correlated with educational experiences and identity, and they are reported in Table 68. Teachers who feel strongly connected to a community of historians also share a sense of purpose (.271, $p < .001$) and collaborate with other social studies teachers (.381, $p < .001$), and those who have taken historiography classes agreed that they share resources with other teachers (.178, $p < .05$). Teachers who feel like their undergraduate history classes focus on historical content also feel that they share resources more often with other social studies teachers (.162, $p < .05$).

Table 68

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Education Experiences and Identity in Communities

	I share the same beliefs and sense of purpose about teaching as other social studies teachers	I share resources with other social studies teachers	I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools
My college undergraduate classes focused on historical content	.072	.162*	.104
Have you ever taken a historiography class?	.009	.178*	.169

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, n ranged from 160-161

Beliefs

Teachers were asked to report how much they agree with four statements regarding the nature of historians, history as a discipline, and how it is taught in high school. They were given a choice as a Likert scale ranging from Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree, and Strongly disagree.

Beliefs and beliefs.

As shown in Table 69, teachers who believe that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else also increasingly believe high school students need to learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills ($.277, p \leq .001$).

Table 69

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Beliefs Correlated with Each Other

	History is about objective truths not subjective truths	The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past	High School Student need to learn the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking
The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	.166*	--.--		
Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past	-.079	.119	--.--	
High School Student need to learn the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking	.156	.277***	.171	--.--

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Beliefs and communities.

Teacher beliefs regarding the discipline of history and its purpose were correlated with communities, and two statistically significant weak relationships were discovered and are displayed in Table 70. Teachers who feel connected to a community of historians disagreed with the statement that the purpose of studying

history is different for historians than it is for everyone else (-.188, $p < .05$). Teachers who feel closely connected to a community of coaches and athletes agreed with the statement that history is about objective truths, not subjective truths (.246, $p < .01$).

Table 70

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Beliefs and Communities

	History is about objective truths not subjective truths	The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else
Historians	-.010	-.188*
Social Studies Teachers	.106	.116
Teachers of other disciplines	.126	.154
Coaches, Athletes	.246**	.060
Writers, Artists, Musicians	.112	-.094

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 153-161

Beliefs and identity.

There were no statistically significant relationships between teacher beliefs and teacher identity regarding history, but data on correlations is reported in Table 71.

Table 71

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Beliefs and Identity Regarding History

	History is about objective truths not subjective truths	The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past	High School Students need to learn the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking
I feel more like an historian now	-.069	-.116	.067	.082
I am more connected to a community of historians now	.058	-.013	.119	-.031

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Teacher beliefs about the discipline of history and historical thinking were correlated with identity in community, and one weak statistically significant relationship was found, as displayed in Table 72. Teachers who showed increasing agreement for the belief that history is about objective truths not subjective truths also agreed that they share the same sense of beliefs and purpose as other social studies teachers (.168, $p < .05$).

Table 72

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Beliefs and Identity in Community

	History is about objective truths not subjective truths	The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else	Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past	High School Students need to learn the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking
I share the same sense of beliefs and sense of purpose as other social studies teachers	.168*	.138	.026	.075
I share resources such as primary documents and lesson plans with other social studies teachers	.081	.023	.016	.015

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, n ranged from 155-161

Communities

Teachers were asked to select how strongly connected they felt to various communities in their schools and were asked to choose between no connection, weakly connected, moderately connected, and strongly connected for each category of community. The communities listed were historians, social studies teachers, teachers of other disciplines, coaches/athletes, and writers/artists/musicians.

Communities and communities.

As noted in Table 73, when cross correlated with other communities, teachers who feel increasingly connected to a community of historians only feel strongly connected to a community of writers, artists, and musicians (.355, $p < .001$), whereas those who feel connected to a community of teachers of other disciplines also feel connected to coaches/athletes (.278, $p < .001$) and writers, artists, and musicians (267, $p < .001$). Coaches/athletes also feel connected to communities of social studies teachers (.228, $p < .01$) but no statistically significant relationship to historians or writers, artists, or musicians was found.

Table 73

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Communities Correlated with Each Other

	Historians	Social Studies Teachers	Teachers of other Disciplines	Coaches, Athletes
Social Studies Teachers	.023	--.--		
Teachers of other disciplines	-.030	.406***	--.--	
Coaches, Athletes	-.035	.228**	.278***	--.--
Writers, Artists, Musicians	.355***	.011	.267***	.007

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 158-161

Communities and identity.

Displayed in Table 74 is data regarding correlations between community and identity regarding history. Teachers who feel strongly connected to a community of historians also feel more connected to a group of historians now (.419, $p < .001$), and teachers who feel more connected to a community of historians now also feel increasingly connected to a community of writers, artists, and musicians (.285, $p < .001$).

Table 74

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Community and Identity Regarding History

	I feel more like a historian now	I am more connected to a community of historians now
Historians	.147	.419***
Social Studies Teachers	-.010	.124
Teachers of other disciplines	-.014	.105
Coaches, Athletes	.110	.166*
Writers, Artists, Musicians	.155	.285***

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Most of the relationships between teacher communities and identity in community were statistically significant, though with weak to moderate strength, as noted in Table 75. Teachers who feel increasingly connected to teachers of other

disciplines and coaches and athletes both increasingly agreed that they share beliefs about the purpose of teaching history with other teachers and they share resources with other social studies teachers.

Table 75

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Community and Identity in Communities

	I share the same beliefs and sense of purpose about teaching as other social studies teachers	I share resources with other social studies teachers	I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools
Historians	.000	.106	.337***
Social Studies Teachers	.147	.388***	.269***
Teachers of other disciplines	.289***	.197*	.243**
Coaches, Athletes	.237**	.193**	.268***
Writers, Artists, Musicians	.007	.068	.225**

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 155-161

Teacher Identities

Teacher reports of identities as historians and within communities had some of the most consistent and strongest positive statistical significant relationships in this study, as can be seen in Table 76.

Identity and identity.

Teachers who reported feeling more connected to a community of historians also feel more like historians (.414, $p < .001$), and they also increasingly agreed that they share beliefs and resources with other social studies teachers (.321 and .322, respectively, $p < .001$). Teachers who feel more connected to a community of historians now also feel more like historians now (.414, $p < .001$).

Table 76

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Identity Correlated with Identity

	I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools	I feel more like an historian now	I am more connected to a community of historians now	I share the same sense of beliefs and sense of purpose as other social studies teachers
I am more connected to a community of historians now	.381***	.414***	--.--	
I share the same beliefs and sense of purpose about teaching as other social studies teachers	.321***	.197*	.271***	--.--
I share resources with other social studies teachers	.322***	.099	.118	.189*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 160-161

Teaching Tenure

Years of teaching experience reported was correlated with the other factors and several statistically significant weak to moderate relationships were found. As noted in Table 77, the longer teachers have been teaching, the less likely they are to agree that their undergraduate history and teacher education classes focused on historical thinking skills (-.280, $p < .001$, -.211, $p < .01$). Increased teaching tenure also led to a positive correlation to feeling more like a historian now and feeling more connected to a community of historians (.242, $p < .01$, .163, $p < .05$), as well as agreement that they have taken graduate history classes (.417, $p < .001$). The only other statistically significant relationship found with teaching experience was a negative relationship with their use of cultural sources in their classrooms (-.170, $p < .05$).

Table 77

Spearman's Rho Correlation Calculations of Years Spent Teaching and Other Factors

	Years Spent Teaching
I feel more like a historian now	.242**
I am more connected to a community of historians now	.163*
Have you taken any graduate history classes	.417***
My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills	-.280***
My college teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills	-.211**
Cultural sources: art, music, and dance	-.170*

Note. * = $p \leq .05$, ** = $p \leq .01$, *** = $p \leq .001$, n ranged from 157-161

Chapter 5: Discussion

History education has undergone a steady transformation in the past several decades, with a shift of emphasis away from historical content to that of historical thinking. This "new history" encourages students to "think like historians" and engage in the process of interpreting, analyzing, and even creating historical narratives themselves. However, there has been some doubt that this new purpose for teaching history has translated into changes in classroom practices at the high school level, and research in the field is lacking. While there have been some data reported as case-studies on individual teacher practices, there has been little data collected on a larger scale that answers Larry Cuban's question: "How many teachers teach a new kind of history?" (Cuban, 2015, para. 2).

Another question about history teachers has emerged alongside that of practices, and it pertains to why teachers use the practices they do. Alan Sears (2014) recently suggested that it has to do with the identity teachers have within the community of practice of history: "Their sense of identity manifests itself in how some history teachers carry out their role: passing on historical information rather than fostering historical thinking" (p. 17).

Based on these queries about the nature of history education, the purpose of this study was to investigate who is teaching history in high schools, how they are teaching it, and why they teach it the way they do. A quantitative study in the form of an anonymous survey was used to pursue questions regarding teacher characteristics and demographics, kinds of sources, pedagogical practices, teaching objectives, and

teacher communities and identities of high school history teachers in Oregon. Descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics in the form of correlations and chi-square calculations were used. Analysis and discussion of reported data will be addressed by research question.

Who is Teaching High School History in Oregon Classrooms?

A majority of the high school social studies teachers participating in this study reported being white, male, and teaching for fifteen years or more. Male high school history teachers in the study outnumbered females 2-1 and more than half have been teaching for 15 years or more. 90% reported their race/ethnicity as white and 0% report being African American. 88.07% of teachers participating in the study reported teaching U.S. history, and 27.84% of teachers reported teaching Global or World history. A majority of teachers (54.75%) reported having earned a Master of Arts in Teaching as a graduate degree, while only eight teachers reported having a Master's degree in history. Additional roles teachers reported having include Professional Learning Community Member or Leader (42.86%), Coach (39.13%), and Club Leader (32.3%).

Discussion and implications of who is teaching high school history.

While the results of this study do not necessarily represent the entire population of all social studies teachers in the state of Oregon and the United States, it is likely that these percentages and numbers do reflect trends in the field of social studies educators. According to these data, high school social studies teachers appear to be highly educated, with 172 out of 186 (92.47%) having earned a graduate degree.

They also appear to have multiple responsibilities at their schools, since 82.25% have roles as a club leader, professional learning community member or leader, coach, or other position. There also appears to be a large number of veteran teachers with substantial experience, which demonstrates that teachers have stayed in the field of teaching for long spans of time. However, some of the specific demographic information of these social studies teachers could be seen as troubling. First of all, the teacher demographics do not reflect the populations of students in Oregon. During the 2015-2016 school year, the Oregon Department of Education (ODE) reported the student population to be 51.46% male and 48.54% female (ode.state.or.us). The ODE reported student ethnicity data for the same year was 63.4% White, 2.4% Black, 22.5% Hispanic, 4.6% Asian/Pacific Islander, 1.4% American Indian/Alaskan Native, and 5.7% Multi-Ethnic. While the majority of students in Oregon are white, there are still significant minorities that are present, and the data regarding gender and race/ethnicity are not reflected in the study's sample of high school social studies teachers, which is a concern. Delpit (2012) explained: "We must remember that children do need to see and connect to teachers who look like themselves, who know communities and their lives, who know how to say their names…we have to undo any model that obliquely serves to replicate a racist past" (pp. 118-9).

How Do High School Teachers Describe Teaching History in Oregon?

The data collected in this study suggest that while high school social studies teachers reported using a variety of sources and practices, traditional subject matter

and practices such as textbooks, lecture, and teacher-led whole class discussion dominate their instructional methods.

The survey data suggest that teachers use political and social historical sources most often, an average of three times a month. Few teachers reported using any sort of primary sources daily, with nine teachers being the most that report using any sort of primary source—in this case cultural sources—daily. Approximately a third of teachers (n = 62) reported using military sources never or almost never, while 15 teachers report never or almost never using cultural sources. The kinds of historical themes that teachers reported emphasizing echoes the same trend: sixteen percent reported placing no emphasis on military themes, while political and social developments were both given significant emphasis by more than half of teachers (n = 85, n = 90, respectively).

Teacher responses regarding their teaching objectives are graphed in Figure 1, with the darker colors representing more traditional historical methods and the lighter colors representing the objectives more closely connected to historical thinking practices. Teachers' answers about their learning objectives reveal that they value helping students understand the connections between topics but at the same time do not emphasize developing historiographical understanding, as evidenced in Figure 8. Two-thirds of teachers (66.67%) reported that they place the most emphasis—significant emphasis—on "Understanding themes and connections between topics" as a learning objective, while more than half of teachers (58.65%) reported placing either no emphasis or some emphasis on "Developing an understanding of historiography" and only eighteen teachers say they place significant emphasis on it. These findings

are significant because while historiography is not the only component of historical thinking, it is an essential one. The emphasis on understanding connections between topics is on its own not evidence of historical thinking.

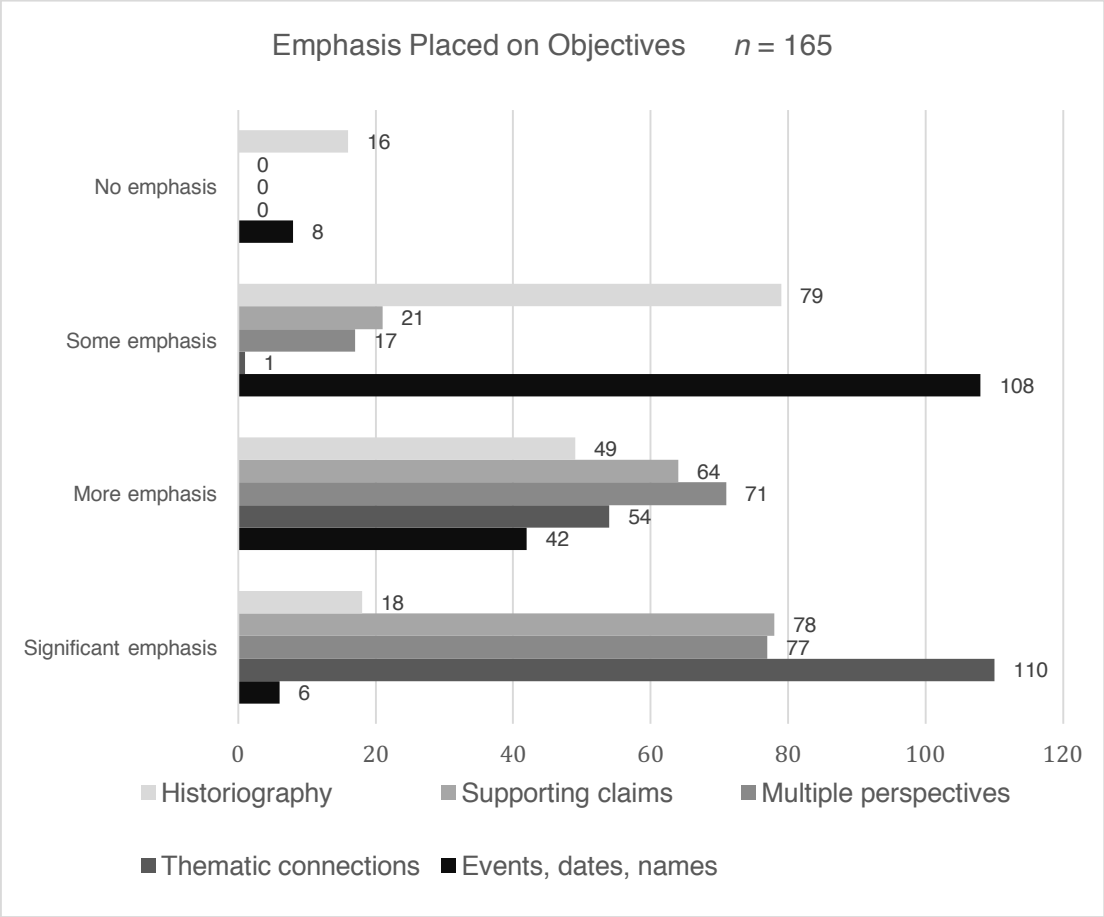

Figure 1

Emphasis of Specific Objectives for Learning History

Teacher responses about their instructional methods are displayed in Figure 2, again with darker colors representing more traditional historical practices and lighter colors representing practices the reflect potential historical thinking practices. Teachers reported that they employ lecture and teacher-led whole class instruction most often, and Socratic seminars and student presentations least often. Figure 9

shows that 75.46% of teachers reported that they lecture once a week or more and nearly the same number of teachers (74.07%) reported that they used teacher-led whole group discussions once a week or more. 65.24% reported using student presentations once a month and 31.85% reported never or almost never using Socratic Seminars. These findings support claims made by researchers that despite the recent emphasis on student-directed learning, history teachers continue to depend on teacher-centered instructional practices most often (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Russell, 2010; Wineburg, 2001). The data also suggests that two popular methods used to develop historical literacy—discussion and debate—are used less frequently than teacher-centered practices (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Beck & Eno, 2012). However, because the survey did not specifically ask how much time in terms of percentage was spent on these instructional practices, it is not possible to conclude that more class time overall is spent on one particular activity over another.

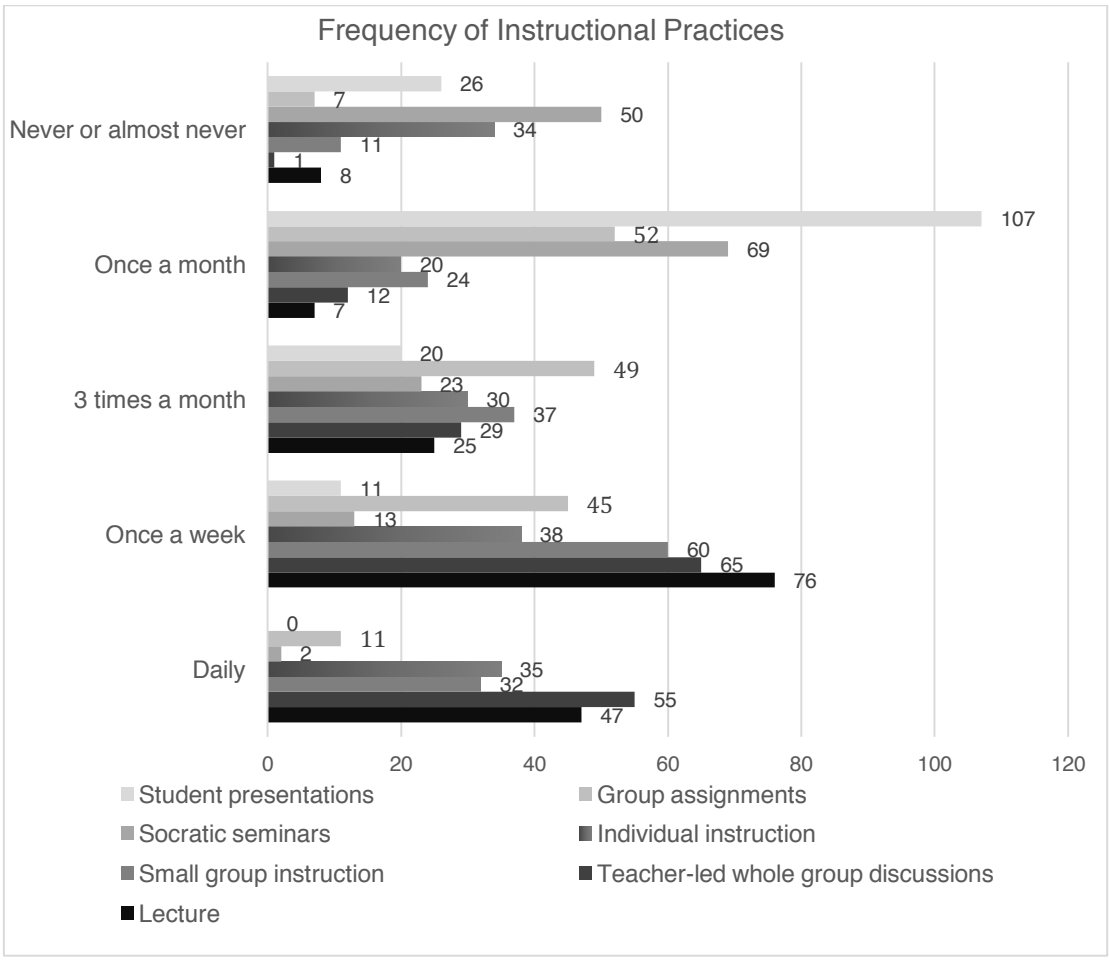

Figure 9

Frequency of Instructional Practices

Most teachers reported that they rely on traditional sources such as the textbook and teacher's resource guide, followed closely by the use of primary sources as one of the top three ways in which they prepare for a new unit. 70.76% of teachers reported that they read the textbook and teacher resource guide to prepare for a new unit, while 61.4% of teachers read primary sources to prepare for a new unit. Slightly less than half (45.05%) reported that they read websites to prepare. Only 29 teachers (16.96%) reported that one of their top three ways to learn about a topic was to

research related historiography on the topic and about a third reported that they would find and read scholarly articles on the subject (32.75%). This is interesting because textbooks and the related materials often present a version of history that is most likely traditional or heritage based, and limited in its perspectives and points of view, and resources such as scholarly articles and related historiography are more likely to present the multiple perspectives and disciplinary understanding of the topic that would be needed to explore the topic beyond the views of the textbook narrative (Wineburg, 2001). Seventy-seven teachers reported they would read about it on websites and 45 would listen to podcasts, while only four teachers reported that they would learn about a topic by asking a historian. This suggests that while teachers might be moving towards a more dynamic approach to preparing for a unit that includes technology and a variety of resources, the stronghold of information and teacher knowledge remains the history textbook. This study then supports Blumberg's (2009) claim that textbooks occupy a substantial part of the history curriculum and practices despite Nokes, Dole, & Hacker's (2007) finding that students learn better—both content knowledge and historical reasoning skills—with primary sources than they did with the textbook.

Use of the textbook may also limit understanding of historical thinking. As Wineburg (2001) stated, "the defining feature of historical discourse—its constant reference to the documentary record through footnotes—is the aspect that drops out when historical texts become history textbooks" (p. 79). Presenting historical information as a set of facts, without an author and without proof of interpretation, limits a student's ability to see how the historical process translates to a narrative.

While teachers reported using traditional sources in preparing for and teaching history, they also reported relying on primary sources. As shown in Figure 6, at least half of teachers reported using political, social, and cultural primary sources three times a month or more in their classrooms, while at the same time, only a handful of teachers (five to nine, depending on the kind of source) reported using primary sources every day. These data suggest that while teachers reported using primary sources relatively often, it is not clear how they are using these sources. And even though teachers were specifically asked how they use primary sources in their classroom, it was difficult to interpret their responses since they had the option of selecting multiple choices and many chose all. Nearly all (92.07%) teachers saying that they use them to gain multiple perspectives of people in the past, which was the most selected option. 113 teachers reported that they use primary sources as content knowledge. According to the findings, most teachers reported using them for several of the reasons listed.

Another important finding is that teachers reported they expected their students to learn about a topic differently from how they expected to learn it themselves. Interestingly, only 57.31% of teachers reported that one of the main ways their students should come to know about a topic is through reading the textbook, even though 70.76% of teachers reported that they would read the textbook as one of the top three ways to learn about the subject themselves. Over 70% of teachers reported that students should learn about the topic by reading several primary sources, compared to the 61.4% that said they would learn about a topic themselves by reading primary sources. Nearly 40% of teachers expect their students to learn about the topic by listening to the instructor and over 30% expect their students to learn about it

primarily through reading websites or YouTube, TED talks, or podcasts, which exceeds the percentage of teachers reporting how they would learn about a topic. Only fifteen teachers reported they expect students to read related historiography about the topic, and 35 expect students to read scholarly articles on the subject, almost half the number of teachers that reported to employ those methods to learn about a topic themselves. Five teachers reported that they would expect their students to learn about a topic by asking a historian, but, interestingly, only four teachers would learn about a topic by asking a historian themselves. These data suggest that teachers value primary sources for student learning but they still depend on textbooks either primarily or secondarily for themselves and their students in learning about a topic.

Discussion and implications of how teachers report teaching history.

After analysis and interpretation, much of the data raise questions as to what extent historical thinking is being taught in high school history classrooms. The reported frequent use of primary sources could be evidence that historical thinking is being taught in the classroom, but it is not proof. Historical primary sources can reveal a great deal of perspective, depth, and contradicting points of view if they are analyzed and interpreted in a historical manner (Wineburg, 2001) and can be potential evidence that high school history teachers share a repertoire possibly placing them in a community of practice (Wenger, 1998). These questions about how teachers use primary sources, as well as those regarding the objectives for teaching history, are connected to the theoretical frameworks of community of practice (Wenger, 1998) and discourse community (Swales, 1990) in that the kinds of repertoire used, such as primary sources, and the ways in which teachers use those sources, as a set of common

goals or joint enterprise, may reveal a belonging those communities. Teachers reported that the primary way their students use primary sources was to gain perspectives of people in the past, which could be interpreted as part of the historical process. However, most teachers (n = 113) also reported that they use primary sources for content knowledge, which is not evidence of historical thinking and could counter historical thinking, revealing a potential conflict among joint purposes. If they read sources primarily to supplement the content and narrative of the textbook, without emphasizing their role in the construction of a historical narrative, their use may not be evidence of historical thinking practices, but rather an additional piece of authoritative information offered to the student as truth, which would likely not be evidence of a repertoire shared with historians. In other words, the mere use of primary sources does not mean historical thinking is happening. As Barton and Levstik (2004) pointed out, "The practice of analyzing primary sources has become reified, as though it were an end in itself, or as though meaning could inhere in historical sources themselves rather than in the uses to which they are put" (p. 201). Therefore, the belonging to a community of practice is still not definitive.

Teacher objectives that value connections between topics are not necessarily evidence of historical thinking either. In fact, this kind of understanding history, as one event followed by another, with a focus on connections, is referred to by Barton and Levstik (2004) as the "analytic stance" and exposes a belief that history is primarily a series of events that move through time, not a process in and of itself. The fact that developing an understanding of historiography was often given less emphasis compared to other objectives also suggests that historical thinking is not being taught.

Data on reported teacher practices also send an ambiguous message about the role of historical thinking in the classroom. Because the survey itself was limited in the kind of information about how teacher used certain instructional practices, it is not clear exactly how and why those practices are used. But the dominant reliance on lecture and teacher-led whole class instruction does not align with certain historical thinking goals, such as close analysis and individual interpretation of sources. Historical thinking practices place students at the center of the classroom, as "producers of original understandings, developing independent interpretations of historical events—interpretations that had significant value" (Nokes, 2013, p. xv). Students would be hard pressed to create such narratives if lectures and teacher-led instruction dominated their classroom daily, but would likely benefit from small group and individual instructional methods.

Survey data suggest that teachers value student use of primary sources, but that they themselves rely heavily on the textbook, teacher resource guide, and websites. This suggested disparity between how teachers seek and learn about a particular topic and how their students learn could signify a tension between what teachers believe students ought to learn and the practicality of learning and planning how to teach it; perhaps this highlights the struggle between the intents and objectives of teachers and the real practices in classrooms. It is encouraging that teachers reported using primary sources so often and so much, but these data combined with teacher objectives reveal a mixed message of the role primary sources play in the classroom. Is it to view multiple perspectives of the past, which would be a potential sign of historical thinking practices, and likely connect to how historians use the same repertoire? Or

do teachers use primary sources as content knowledge, which is not how historians would use the same repertoire? These conflicting messages make it difficult to conclude exactly how many teachers are using historical thinking practices. Overall, it can be concluded that teachers show signs of teaching historical thinking, and an intent to do so, but widespread practice of it appears doubtful, though it is difficult to determine to what extent, based on these data.

Why Do Teachers Teach the Way They Do?

At the heart of knowing how teachers teach is a bigger, more complicated question: why do they teach the way they do? It is an essential question if the goal is to change or encourage specific teacher practices, and explanatory theories abound. This study focused on four main reasons that could explain why teachers teach the way they do: their education and feelings about their education experiences; their beliefs about the discipline of history and the role of high school history; their elected and assigned professional communities, and; their identities as a historian and within the community of historians. The survey asked teachers to respond to questions about a range of factors about their education experiences, beliefs about the purposes of history, communities, and identities, in hope of determining their relationship to their teaching practices. Descriptive data, correlational analyses, and chi-square calculations were used to determine the statistical nature and strength of these relationships. The interpretation of these data and statistical analyses, as well the responses to an open-ended question, offer some insights into why teachers choose the practices they do, the results of which are reported below.

Education experiences.

Teacher education experience appears to have some influence on teaching practice. When asked directly what most influences their teaching practice, teachers rated the top two experiences as "Time as a social studies teacher" and "Interactions with colleagues," followed by their "College history classes" as the third most influential experience. Interestingly, the fourth most influential experience in determining their teaching practices is their experience as a high school student, receiving more selections than professional development experiences. Continuous interactions with college instructors received the least responses, with only four participants selecting that item.

Teachers reported their agreement with statements about their college classes and historical content and thinking. For example, they reported overwhelming agreement with the statement that "My undergraduate history classes focused on historical content," with 103 teachers strongly agreeing and only three disagreeing. While most teachers agreed that their undergraduate history classes also focused on historical thinking skills, their agreement was less emphatic, and about a quarter of teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed ($n = 42$). These findings highlight some of the arguments that Calder (2006) made:

> For as long as there have been survey courses, some teachers have suspected that the vacant expressions on students' faces…are not so much indications of the students' shortcomings as predictable products of the survey itself, whose basic design requires professors and textbooks to pass on essential information about a historical period. This emphasis on "coverage" accounts for the

> course's trademark routine...'First you listen to a lecture, then you read a textbook, then you take a test,' is how a student described her survey to me (2006, p. 1358).

There was no consistent agreement about how teachers feel regarding their education classes. Teachers split their responses with the statement that their education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills, with 87 teachers in agreement and 83 in disagreement. Most teachers reported that their graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills.

When correlated with teacher practices and other categories, teacher education experiences appear to be related, though weakly, to certain practices and explanatory factors. Teachers that reported taking either a full historiography course or a course with historiography embedded in it (n = 98) have statistically significant but weak to moderate relationships to the following factors:

1. Increased use of social and cultural sources
2. Instruct using more "Small groups" and "Socratic seminars"
3. Increase use of objectives of "Developing skills for supporting claims" and "Developing an understanding of historiography"
4. Increased disagreement that "Studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else"
5. Increased agreement that they "Share resources with other social studies teachers" and "Collaborating with teachers form other schools"
6. Increased agreement to "Feel connected to a group of historians"

7. Increased agreement that their "Graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills," their "Undergraduate history classes focused on historical content," and their "Undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills"

Using chi-square calculations, it was found that teachers that have a Master's degree (n = 8) in history have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships to the following factors:

1. Increasing emphasis on objective to "Develop understanding of historiography"
2. Increasing emphasis on "Social developments"
3. Decreasing role of being a coach
4. Increasingly took a "Historiography Course"
5. Decreasing agreement with "I feel closer to community of historians now"—only two of eight agree with that statement.
6. While not statistically significant because it follows a pattern statistically similar to those teachers without a Master's in history, five out of eight teachers with a Master's in history believe that "High school history students need to learn the facts before they develop historical thinking skills".

This study suggests that the education experiences of teachers are related to how they teach history. Because correlations are not predictors, it is not certain that it was their specific education experiences that led teachers to choose certain practices, but those with certain experiences do practice certain methods. It would make sense

that teachers who have had more historiographical classes use of more social and much more cultural sources, in an attempt to offer students as many perspectives as possible, in the same way that they would also emphasize developing an understanding of historiography and developing skills for supporting claims. These objectives would lead them to use more small group instruction and Socratic seminars, which is also the case. And perhaps because they have been exposed to the ways in which historians construct a narrative of significance they believe the purpose of studying history is not different for historians than it is for everyone else. It is not immediately clear, however, why they would necessarily agree that all their college classes focused on historical thinking skills, nor why they feel more connected to a community of historians and why they share resources and collaborate with other social studies teachers.

Most of the relationships between teachers with graduate degrees in history and other factors also make sense: that they would place increasing emphasis on developing an understanding of historiography because they learned about historiography themselves, and that they would feel less connected to a group of historians now, considering they used to feel quite connected to a community of historians in graduate school. But it is the fact that most teachers with graduate history degrees (five out of eight) believe that high school history students should learn the facts of history before they can develop historical thinking skills that takes more interpretation. This belief is not expressed by teachers with graduate degrees in Education, either with an MAT or an MEd, who largely disagree with that statement (54 disagree, 30 agree for MAT graduates; 23 disagree compared to 15 agree of MEd

graduates). These findings suggest that teachers who are closer, or were at one time closer, to a discourse community of discipline historians, or the "core" of history as Sears called it (2014, p. 14), have developed beliefs that high school history should focus first on content. This "content first" approach, as Holt (1990) explained, actually postpones historical thinking, as it emphasizes history as, "someone else's facts," even though actual history is more than memorization, and "it is to go beyond facts toward the making of a narrative, with all the selection, empathy, and risk a point of view that this implies" (p. xii). Surely the teachers with graduate degrees in history do not understand history to be merely a series of facts, but what is suggested by these data is that they believe that high school students do not need to be simultaneously taught about the process that is history as well as the facts that are history. While only eight participants reported having earned a Master's degree in history, which is statistically too small for most calculations to be accurate, it could suggest that based on the disagreement regarding the same belief to teachers without a graduate degree in history, these teachers with Master's in history learned these beliefs not in spite of their graduate history degree, but perhaps *because* of it.

Beliefs.

Beliefs teacher reported regarding the nature of history do relate significantly to teacher practices. Teachers reported that as a group, there is little consensus as to what they believe, with one exception: all but nine teachers agree that historians construct a narrative of significance about the past. Somewhat surprisingly, the other statements reveal very disparate views about the nature of history. There is a nearly

even split between teachers that agreed or strongly agreed history is about objective truths (70 teachers,) and teachers that disagreed or strongly disagreed with that belief (87 teachers). Interestingly, many more teachers feel strongly that this statement is not true (n = 18) than those who strongly believe it is true (n = 5).

A similar trend is evidenced regarding beliefs that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else, though not as evenly split. Here most teachers (n = 94) disagreed that studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else, while 64 teachers agreed with the statement. Teachers were also divided in their reported beliefs about whether high school students need to learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills, though more disagree with that statement than agree, 97 to 64. This is a similar percentage as those that believe the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else.

Based on the results of correlational analysis using Spearman's rho, the following teacher beliefs emerged as having multiple statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with other factors: Teachers who believe history is about objective truths not subjective truths, teachers who believe that high school students should learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills, and teachers who believe the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else. Teachers who believe history is about objective truths not subjective truths have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with the following factors:

1. Increased belief that high school students needs to learn facts before the develop historical thinking skills and that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else
2. Increased emphasis on political themes
3. Decreased graduate courses
4. Increased feeling of connection to a community of coaches/athletes
5. Increased belief that they share the same sense of purposes and beliefs as other social studies teachers
6. No statistically significant relationship with identity as historians

Teachers who believe that high school students should learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with the following factors:

1. Increased use of lecture and decreased use of small group instruction, individual instruction, Socratic seminars, and student presentations
2. Increased use of political events and decreased use of cultural sources
3. Increased agreement that a main objective is learning facts, events, names, and dates and decreased agreement that a main objective is viewing history through multiple perspectives and developing skills for supporting claims
4. Increased belief that the purpose of history is different for historians than it is for everyone else and belief that historians construct a narrative of significance about the past
5. No statistically significant relationships with education experiences

6. No statistically significant relationships with identity as historian

Teachers who believe the purpose of history is different for historians than it is for everyone else have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with the following factors:

1. Decreased use of political, social, and cultural sources
2. Decreased use of teacher-led whole class discussion
3. Increased belief that history is about objective truths not subjective truths
4. Increased feeling of being closely connected to other historians
5. Fewer historiography classes
6. No statistically significant relationships with identity as historian

Based on the survey data, teacher practices are most related to the belief that high school students first need to learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills. This makes sense, since it directly deals with the purpose of teaching high school history. The teachers who agree with this statement use traditional, teacher-focused practices reflecting this particular belief: that facts are of utmost importance when instructing high school students. They teach using lecture more and small groups, Socratic seminars, and individual instruction less. They rely on traditional content such as an increased use of political themes but fewer cultural sources. They emphasize the objective of learning facts, names, dates, and events over developing skills for making claims and an understanding of historiography. Also not surprising but certainly revealing is the fact that they also agree that the purpose of

studying history is different for a historian than it is for everyone else and that historians construct a narrative of significance about the past. The data suggest that these teachers teach a content-based, teacher-centered history class, likely based on their beliefs about what high school students should learn about history. Interestingly, these teachers do not have an increased belief that history is about objective truths not subjective truths.

Teachers who believe history is about objective truths have teacher practices that emphasize political themes, but otherwise do not have related teaching practices. Teachers who believe that the purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else use fewer political, social, and cultural sources, which likely means they use fewer sources overall, and show a slight decreased use of teacher-led whole class discussion. The use of primary sources is an example of a shared repertoire within a community of historians, but these teachers may not feel connected to that community and do not share those pieces of repertoire.

Communities.

The kinds of communities teachers reported feeling closely connected to have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with teacher practices. Interestingly, most teachers reported feeling closely connected to a community of historians, but this particular community connection does not present statistically significant relationships with teacher practices. But some limited and statistically significant weak relationships were found between two other groups: teachers who feel closely connected to a community of coaches as well those who feel closely connected to a community of writers, artists, and musicians.

Teachers who feel connected to a community of writers, artists, musicians:

1. Increasingly use cultural sources
2. Place increased emphasis on social developments
3. Increasingly use individual instruction and Socratic seminars
4. Place increased emphasis on objective of viewing history through multiple perspectives
5. Feel increasingly connected to other groups of historians and teachers of other disciplines
6. Increasingly collaborate with teachers from other schools
7. More often are female
8. More often teach IB courses
9. Report an increased agreement that their college graduate and undergraduate classes focused on historical thinking skills

The relationship that exists between teachers feeling connected to a community of artists, writers, and musicians and certain teacher practices, such as an increased use of cultural sources, and increased emphasis on social developments, and increasing use of individual instruction and Socratic seminars all make sense, especially because their most valued objective is viewing history through multiple perspectives. These relationships suggest that this is a group of teachers who emphasize the individual voices that can be heard—through various cultural sources—throughout the narratives of the past. It would also make sense in some ways that these teachers are statistically

significantly female, since they would bring a different view of history to their classrooms and emphasize the objective of viewing history through multiple perspectives, perhaps one of which is gender.

Teachers who feel closely connected to a community of coaches have statistically significant weak to modest relationships with the following factors:

1. Increased use of military and political sources
2. Decreased use of group assignments
3. Increased belief that history is about objective truths not subjective truths
4. Increasingly agree that their undergraduate history classes focused on content
5. None have a graduate degree in history
6. Are statistically significantly male more than female
7. Decreased teaching of IB classes
8. Increased feeling of being closely connected to groups of other social studies teachers and teachers of other disciplines
9. Increased feeling of connection to a community of historians now
10. Increased feeling that they share the same beliefs about the purpose of teaching history, share resources, and collaborate with teachers from other schools

Teachers who feel connected to a community of coaches have a relationship with just two teacher practices: using more political and military sources and less frequent use of group assignments. Why they use these differing practices is not obvious, but these are more traditional kinds of sources. Their sense of community with other teachers does make some sense: it is likely that they are coaches themselves, and

probably know and possibly collaborate with other coaches, outside the isolation of the classroom. Perhaps then they develop relationships that encourage or support the same sense of beliefs. The data suggest that teachers connected to communities of coaches are more often male teachers who do not appear to be closely connected to a discourse community of historians, since they have not taken many graduate history classes, their undergraduate history classes focused on content, and they believe history is about objective truths, a belief most historians would likely disagree with.

According to the survey data, how teachers feel about being connected to certain communities does not reveal strong relationships to their teaching practices, but it is important to pay attention to patterns and consistencies in the data. The teachers that feel connected to a community of writers, artists, and musicians could represent teachers with a wider, broader belief about how history should be taught, and emphasize the belief that history can be viewed through multiple perspectives, which would be reflected in their practices, while those that feel connected to a community of coaches could represent teachers who believe history to be primarily about objective truths.

Identity.

There are limited statistically significant relationships between identity and practices, and those that exist are weak, implying that teacher identity does not relate strongly to teacher practices. Based on the results of correlational analysis with identity, two categories of teachers emerged as having statistically significant

relationships with other factors: Teachers who feel more like an historian now, and teachers who feel more connected to a community of historians now.

Teachers who feel more like an historian now have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with the following factors:

1. Increased emphasis on military and political themes
2. Increased use of military sources
3. Increased use of lecture
4. Increased graduate courses in history
5. Increased years teaching
6. Increased feeling of being more connected to a community of historians now
7. Increased agreement that they share the same sense of purpose as other social studies teachers

Teachers who feel more like historians report using more military sources and more military and political themes than those who do not feel more like historians. They also reported using lecture as an instructional method more often. While these are interesting connections, it is not immediately obvious why these relationships exist. Looking at the other factors that relate to teacher identity, it seems that teachers who feel more like historians have been teaching longer, have had more graduate classes in history, feel more connected to a community of historians now, and share the same sense of beliefs as other social studies teachers. This could indicate that these are veteran teachers and their practices align with teachers who are of a certain age and have certain beliefs about their identities. If this is right, it could explain why

military sources and themes are used more often, since they are often viewed as traditional historical content. As Sears (2014) explained regarding teacher beliefs, "We can be sure these challenges (in changing views about how history is taught) will be multiplied for those who are older and have much longer experience with the dominant approaches to history teaching" (p. 16).

Teachers who feel more connected to a group of historians now have statistically significant weak to moderate relationships with the following factors:

1. Increased emphasis on political and military developments
2. Increased use of student presentations
3. Increased emphasis on objective of using history to view multiple perspectives
4. Increased years of teaching
5. Increased report of being a coach
6. Increased agreement of feeling more like an historian now
7. Increased agreement in sense of shared beliefs as other social studies teachers and collaboration with teachers from other schools
8. Increased agreement of feeling more connected to a community of writers, artists, and musicians as well as coaches and athletes

Teachers who feel connected to a community of historians reported that they emphasize political and military themes and use student presentations more. These connections do not explain much on their own, but again, when other factors related to teachers who feel more connected to a community of historians are explored, some interesting connections can be made. Teachers who feel more connected to a

community of historians share many of the same related factors as teachers who feel more like historians now, such as an increase in years spent teaching and shared sense of beliefs with other social studies teachers, as well as feeling more like historians. In fact, while there were many teachers who felt more like historians and did not feel more connected to a community of historians, there were only six teachers who felt more connected to a community of historians but felt less like a historian now. This means that nearly all teachers who feel more connected to a community of historians also feel more like an historian, suggesting the community connection does indeed encourage that identity. However, many teachers felt more like historians now but did not feel more connected to a community of historians, meaning they arrived at that identity despite not feeling that same sense of connection. This data suggest that teachers are able to feel like a historian independently from being connected to a community of historians, which could contradict what Sears (2014) suggested with his belief about high school history teachers needing to be closer to the core of a community of practice. Perhaps it is possible for teachers to feel like historians regardless of their community membership.

Regardless, these teacher-reported identities did not strongly relate to many teaching practices, nor teacher objectives, education experiences, and beliefs. This is interesting and appears to conflict with Sears (2014) who quoted Wenger in saying, "'There is a profound connection between identity and practice'" (p. 17). His argument supports "a change in how teachers think about their relationship to the discipline of history" (p. 17). However, despite this lack of statistically significant relationships between how teachers responded to the question of how much they feel

like historians now and their teaching practices, there still appears to be much truth in Sears' assertions about teacher identities.

Analysis of the open-ended responses to how teachers feel about their identity as historians and their connection to community of historians suggests that what dictates those identities is really a different definition of what it is to be an historian—a different *belief* about their role in history itself. If teachers who feel more like historians now explain that they do so because they *know more* about history now, then they demonstrate a different understanding of what makes someone an historian than a teacher that believes they do not feel like historians because they do not do historical research. These responses reveal the participants understanding of the essential roles of historians: either as someone who knows a lot about history and/or someone who does historical research. These beliefs align with what Sears (2014) argued: "If I am correct that most history teachers work on the margins of the discipline, they often understand themselves as passive recipients of history, not active makers of it" (p.17).

Close examination of these comments reveals something else: These teachers understand the job of historians to be incompatible with their role as a history teacher. In fact, the idea that historians and history teachers are actually mutually exclusive was evident in many comments made by teachers about their identity as historians: "I feel more like an educator than a Historian now," "I see myself as a teacher of history, not a historian. I don't do original research," and "Historians study and dissect history. As a teacher, I teach. Not study it myself or dissect it." These conceptions of historical research as a separate, unique enterprise belonging only to those within the

discourse community of historians supports Sears's claim that teachers do not feel like active makers of history, but it does not necessarily suggest they are on the margins. It could imply that the two worlds of teaching history and doing historical research are in fact not sharing a community of practice—illustrating more definitely the breach that exists between teaching and doing history.

Some other comments clearly illustrate how teachers feel they are on the other side of the breach between history education and academic history: "My research is often limited to the specific courses I teach or theories of education and targeted at the appropriate level(s) of my students" shows the belief that even if a teacher does some sort of historical research, if it pertains to education, then the teacher believes it does not qualify as within the role of an historian. Perhaps two of the best examples of this belief in separation of the roles within the community of history are, "I do not feel that I have space or time to pursue my goals as a historian. I also feel that I have been excluded from some of my more serious academic colleague's newest research because they no longer feel that what I am doing (teaching high school) is academically valuable" and "I feel like, as a high school history instructor, we do not have the same freedom to explore history, interact with other research-based historians, and research historical topics that pertain to their own unique interests, as many "professional" historical researchers or college-level history instructors have." Again, these comments reveal how history teachers feel about their roles within a community of practice of historians and suggest that they do not feel like they are approaching the "core" that Sears thought lays in the middle (2014).

The open-ended response survey data also suggest a pragmatic reason why teachers do not feel like historians: they simply do not have the time or means to do so. Several teachers expressed frustration with the expectation that they should try and connect to a community of historians. Even though some teachers may *want* to feel more like a historian or feel more connected to a community of historians, they do not feel like they have the time or energy to do so. Comments such as, "Between planning, grading, and meetings there isn't time to be a historian," "the sheer number of students in my classes; the increased demands on teachers; the shift in emphasis on 'leveling the field' for SPED students and those below grade level in skills; and our district's move away from a block schedule to a more traditional 7-period day, have all served to make me feel less like an historian" and, especially, "In what world does a HS history instructor have time to be a historian? We create no new historical data. I am not wild about this question" reflect this very real frustration—both with the amount of work that these teachers have to do in such limited time, as well as the assumption that they should be doing more.

Discussion and implications of why teachers teach the way they do.

Based on teacher responses in this study, why they teach the ways they do is not clearly or strongly related to one experience, belief, or identity, and that the answer to why is perhaps more nuanced than apparent. But there are interesting findings that raise questions for further research. As revealed by the survey data, teacher beliefs reflect some relationships with teacher practices, and, in a sense, explain why teachers teach history the ways that they do. They teach using traditional content and

instructional methods if they believe that high school students should learn the facts of history before they develop historical thinking skills, for instance. The next step would be to further investigate how and why teachers develop these beliefs and if they have much to do with their relationship to a community of practice of history or a discourse community.

The data also suggest that teacher education experience is related to their practices, though the strength of these relationships were weak to moderate at best. Teachers who have taken more historiography reported that they focus more emphasis on the objective of teaching an understanding of historiography in their classrooms, which makes sense and is encouraging as a sign of historical thinking. However, the fact that the majority of teachers with a Master's in history believe that high school students need to learn facts before they develop historical thinking skills is worth further investigation as it could reflect Holt's (1990) concerns regarding the "facts first," a commonly held belief that delays student learning of historical thinking. These data suggest this belief is not necessarily challenged in history graduate programs, which draws into question Sears's argument that high school history teachers need to get "closer to the core" of the community or practice of history.

This study also investigated whether teacher identity and connectedness to a community of historians would reflect certain practices. The few relationships found in the quantitative data were not strong or explanatory, suggesting that identity may have little influence on practice. The teachers' qualitative responses, however, reveal a more nuanced understanding of the teachers' beliefs about their role within the

community of practice of history teachers as well as their position to a discourse community of history.

Many teachers who feel like historians now explain it is because they know more about history—which exposes their belief that knowing historical content is what historians do. Having these various degrees of historical knowledge could indicate a closeness to the "core" of history as Sears suggested. But those that did not feel like historians explain it is because they do not write historical research, responding that they are teachers of history, not researchers, suggesting that the two roles are in fact incompatible. This suggests that these teachers do not feel like they belong to the discourse community of historians, but could potentially still belong to a community of practice of history teachers. These comments expose the very "breach between school and academy" that Wineburg (1991), and others (Bain, 2008; McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000; Sandwell, 2014; Sears, 2014; & Seixas, 1993) have been concerned about. These ideas about what a historian is and does reveals not just the identity of these high school teachers, but their understanding of the discourse community of historians as a whole. And these understandings likely influences their teaching beliefs and practices. Because if teachers do not feel—and perhaps most of them never felt—like they are historians or connected to a community of historians, then their responsibility to teach how to think like a historian might be limited.

Teachers responded that their time spent as a social studies teacher was what most influenced their teaching, indicating it was not the ideologies learned in school but their real-life, practical experiences in the classroom. Perhaps teachers who really want to teach historical thinking feel restricted by time or too many other obligations.

Perhaps their education experiences, beliefs, communities, and identities all support the process and teaching of historical thinking but teachers simply do not have the support they need to use those practices. It needs to be considered that teachers may not teach the ways that they do because of their education experiences, beliefs, communities, or identities: they may actually teach the ways they do *despite* them.

Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations, both in the quality of data that was collected as well as the quantity. Because the study used quantitative data, the depth of responses and data were limited. Only nominal and ordinal data were collected, and only ordinal data were analyzed using correlations or chi-squares, which meant strong relationships between responses and groups were not easily identified. This limited the kinds of analyses as well as some depth of understanding of identity and beliefs to answers of a five-choice survey question.

Another limitation was the quality of the data itself. Because this was self-reported data, teachers represented their practices, experiences, beliefs, communities, and identities through their lens as a practitioner and the subject, not as an objective observer. While self-reported data were appropriate for some questions, such as how teachers feel about their identities, it was a limitation when questions pertaining to their practices, for examples, were asked. Their responses were most likely genuine, but still needed to be analyzed and understood with caution as self-reported data.

The survey questions and content themselves were limited in many ways, one of which was that many questions were removed in order to shorten the survey to accommodate the limited time teachers had in their days. Therefore, many questions

that might have helped investigate more specific teacher practices, teacher resources and artifacts, and teacher experiences, beliefs, communities, and identities were omitted. Specifically, additional questions about the textbooks might have revealed valuable content information, additional questions about primary sources and where teachers accessed them might have revealed teacher familiarity with those sources, and additional questions about syllabi and daily lesson plans might have revealed information about teacher practices.

The respondents of the survey represented a cluster sample of teachers who took the survey, not a population, which could have been a limitation. Also, certain schools were excluded due to the lack of email addresses found on their school's websites, which means that while this study was intended to be a random sample of high school history teachers, it was instead a purposive sample. Great care was taken to ensure all kinds of social studies teachers participated in the survey, and any public high school social studies teacher in Oregon could have been selected to receive an email requesting their participation, those that chose to respond might have represented a certain kind of social studies teacher—one that feels comfortable with the online format, one that feels an affiliation to university research, one that feels like they have something valuable to contribute, or even those that simply have a few more minutes the day they received the email requesting their time. These limitations in the sample and the participants make the study potentially ungeneralizable.

Future Research

Continued research regarding how high school history is being taught, and why it is taught those ways, should be explored, in two primary ways: more qualitative research on high school history teachers and their practices, and both quantitative and qualitative research on how and why history instructors at the college level are teaching.

While this study revealed some interesting relationships between teacher responses to questions about their practices, beliefs, communities, and identities, and points to important questions for future research, this kind of quantitative research is inherently limited in what it reveals about these relationships. The next step for researchers interested in understanding both what is being taught in high school history classrooms as well as why teachers choose the methods they do is more in-depth qualitative research that includes observations, interviews, and artifact analysis. The use of a combination of case-studies, ethnographical, grounded theory, and possibly narrative research (Creswell, 2013) would reveal much more data that exposes teacher practices and how they are related to teacher beliefs, communities, and identities. It is necessary to understand these concepts at a much deeper level, because they ultimately will determine what approaches to teacher education and history education will need to be changed or adjusted so that more teachers are using historical thinking in their classrooms. Much of the literature shows that many studies and programs aimed at increasing historical thinking in schools, such as the Teaching American History program (Ragland & Woestman, 2009), focused on getting teachers to understand what historians do, but these programs might be missing a key

component: teacher beliefs about history. Exploring and examining where and when teachers develop these beliefs about history, the historical process, and their role within the discipline are essential to understanding why teachers teach the ways that they do. Sears (2014) suggested just this kind of analysis:

> The irony is that while we have paid close attention to the cognitive frames of students in history class, scant consideration has been given to the frames of those who teach them…Teachers come to the teaching of history with preconceived and powerful ideas of what the discipline is and how it should be taught, and any approaches advocated in pre-service methods courses or in-service educational opportunities will be filtered through those frames…In order for this to change, it is necessary that both teachers and historians think differently about the relationship of teachers to the discipline of history (p. 16).

This leads to the next category of necessary future research: academic historians.

Sears presented the idea of getting high school history teachers closer to the "core" of the historical community of practice, but also supported expanding the identity of historians to include the role of history educator. He explains that, "History teachers and historians constitute two related and overlapping communities of practice, and productive 'boundary practices' between them could help move teachers towards the core of historical practice and help historians become better teachers" (2014, p. 16). If the goal is to understand how and why history is taught the way it is, it is essential to investigate the practices, beliefs, communities, and identities of academic historians and instructors. There is evidence that academic historians may not feel so different than high school history teachers in regard to why they teach the

ways they do: lack of time and large class sizes, as well as a belief that they are doing their jobs well when they teach students what they know about history. As Sandwell (2014) explained,

> The dramatic growth in average undergraduate class size and perceived decline in students' basic historical knowledge can demoralize faculty; when the conditions conducive to meaningful teaching are being dissolved, it is not surprising that many professors take the path of least resistance and simply 'cover the content'…Pressured to provide such basic, general, and mass history education, historians may feel that they have neither the time nor the energy to explore with their students the disciplinary structures and methods of historical inquiry (p. 84).

These sentiments are the same or nearly the same as those expressed by high school history teachers in this study: "The sheer number of students in my classes; the increased demands on teachers; the shift in emphasis on 'leveling the field' for SPED students and those below grade level in skills; and our district's move away from a block schedule to a more traditional 7-period day, have all served to make me feel less like an historian" and "The demands placed on teachers as well as the variety of classes we have to teach make it difficult to focus on the history." It seems that teachers—both high school and in the academy—struggle with some of the same issues, especially those related to limited time and large class size. Additional research on how and why university faculty teach history would help to expand and clarify our understanding of this parallel and may help erode what Sandwell (2014)

suggested is a contributor to the "breach" between history educators and historians: the ways in which historians view teaching history. She argued that while historians view their "real" work as that which is done for scholarly research and publications, their work as, "historians-as-undergraduate-teachers is arguably just as important, *or even more important*, than the published versions of their original contributions to research" (p. 77). She explained:

> In addition to the differences in power, knowledge, and levels of generalization involved in historians' interactions with these different audiences, another notable distinction immediately impresses the undergraduate history professor who moves from writing a dissertation to delivering his or her first lecture to four hundred undergraduate students: the most salient difference is numbers. For the vast majority of historians, far more people are exposed to the history they convey through their teaching than through their writing (p. 79).

Sandwell continued her argument, justifying the need for historians to teach the historical process because that may be the only professional history training future teachers receive, and that future teachers are now expected to teach much more than content: "Historians may be surprised to learn, however, that international research in and discussions about history education in schools are now suggesting that it is precisely the ways that historians work—how they 'do' history and the epistemological frameworks within which they practice—that are of particular value to schoolchildren and the general public alike" (p. 80).

Conclusions and Implications

The seismic transformation of history education from one focused on historical content to one focused on historical thinking is not yet complete. History educators, policy-makers, and standards-writers have been pushing this history paradigm over a great divide, between the ivory tower of disciplinary history and the tradition of historical content. Here, it seems, it hangs in the balance. On one side, national and state standards include historical thinking as a major objective of high school history classes, and nearly all researchers in the field have been encouraging historical thinking methods for decades. But, based on the data discovered in this study, as well as others that support them, it seems that teaching practices that focus on historical thinking have yet to fully follow suit.

This study addressed two major questions regarding history education: how it is being taught, and why it is being taught that way. The answer to the first question—how—is not initially conclusive: while this study found that teachers report the frequent use of primary sources, it is not clear that historical thinking is being taught. Teachers do not appear to use primary sources in the same way historians do—to construct a narrative of significance. While teachers report that understanding multiple perspectives is a critical objective for their classes, this does not prove that those perspectives are being used as corroboration as Wineburg (1991a) would suggest is necessary for historical thinking. The study suggests that teachers value these artifacts of historical thinking but may not use them in the same way historians do. This shows that teachers have a shared repertoire with each other, but not necessarily historians.

The second question implores: Why do teachers choose practices that do not necessarily reflect their support for historical thinking? That is the final, and most, complex question this study sought to address. The data from this survey reveals that high school history teachers use practices that relate to their education experiences, beliefs, and, to a lesser degree, their communities. The initial correlational data also suggests that their practices were not, as supposed by Sears (2014), strongly related to their identities. Close analysis of the open-ended responses of teachers revealed a more complex understanding of teacher identity, and that they have divided views of their identities as historians: either they feel like historians because they know a lot about historical content, or they do not feel like historians because they do not research it, which shows that the community of practice likely includes history teachers but the discourse community of historians does not. Either way, neither of these are compatible with the new identity they are meant to be forming: that they are historians because they teach historical thinking.

The monumental shift in history education away from history as content towards history as process requires a change in how those that teach it see themselves and their role within the discipline—and this shift in identity may require substantial effort to overcome inertia. As Sears (2014) explained, "[Teachers] have to understand themselves as not only observers and practitioners but as shapers, or potential shapers, of the field. They have to develop a new identity" (p. 18). Teachers who responded to the survey that they feel successful because they know and teach historical content well are being asked to change. They will need to reinvent themselves by knowing and teaching the historical process.

Before teachers can be expected to develop a new identity as historians, it should be asked where they developed and learned about their identity in the first place. Sears suggested that teachers could adopt the identity as historians if they came closer to the "core" of disciplinary history, or the discourse community that Swales (1990) refers to, but this study suggests that the "core" might not be as accessible as he had hoped. As the data from this study as well as the positions of scholars such as Sandwell (2014) and Seixas (1993) have claimed, the discourse community of history is too much closed to members of other communities, even the members of the community of practice of history teachers. It even appears that when historians are acting as teachers of history, they behave and act more like members of the community of practice of history teachers and are expected to exit the discourse community of history to do so. But Seixas (1993) pointed out that this rearrangement is not necessary; it is the repositioning of audience that is key to alignment. "Historians address other historians whereas teachers address students…[but] If we focus on the activity of the expert high school history teacher, who must 'select, excerpt, and in some cases, edit' sources to generate understanding among an audience, the tasks appear to be of the same kind as those of the historian" (p. 317).

If future high school history teachers were included in the audience of historians, as students in their undergraduate classes, for instance, these mutually exclusive identities might fade into a more unified inclusive identity. This leads directly to Sandwell's argument, delegating some of the responsibility of the changes needed in history education to that of professional historians. "Historians as undergraduate teachers need to find ways to strengthen the disciplinary knowledge

they communicate through their undergraduate classes…because historical thinking brings important advantages to citizens trying to make some sense of the complex, varied, and dynamic world in which we live, giving them a kind of understanding they need in order to effectively exercise their democratic voice" (p. 81). Essentially, it seems that to allow members of the community of practice of history teachers to share repertoire, engage mutually, and have a joint enterprise with historians, the discourse community of historians needs to broaden and open itself up to include a larger audience.

Another thing this study revealed was the potential for researchers to use quantitative studies to probe theoretical issues. Because this study was grounded on theoretical frameworks of identity, and the survey instrument was devised through analysis and deliberate attention to the dimensions of communities, the researcher had the ability to formulate some conclusions about the identities of history teachers. While these data have limitations in terms of depth and complexity, they do have the benefit of being potentially generalizable. To say that all history teachers exhibit practices and identities that place them in a community of practice of teachers but not within a discourse community of historians is probably not accurate. But to say that this study showed that the relationship between high school history teachers and historians is more nuanced than simply one being at the core and the other being at the periphery is true. This study is an example of how the process of theoretical framing for a quantitative study can contribute valuable and generalizable research.

And here I have to hope that Barton and Levstik (2004) are correct: "For teachers to emphasize reasoned judgment, an expanded view of humanity, and

collaborative discourse about the common good, they will have to believe—deeply and clearly—that these contribute to democracy…and we believe, given the chance, they will develop a deep and enduring commitment to a democracy, because democracy is a mighty theme" (p. 260-261).

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Appendix A

Email Communication with Potential Participants from Researcher

Dear _____ District Social Studies Teacher,

My name is Marla and I am a social studies teacher as well as a doctoral student in the School of Education at the University of Portland. My dissertation research is about social studies teachers and their practices and beliefs. The success of my project depends on teachers like yourself, chosen randomly, to anonymously answer my short survey.

Please consider completing this short questionnaire, which should take approximately 10 minutes: Social Studies Teacher Survey. Responses will be completely anonymous; your name will not appear anywhere on the survey and I will not be able to trace your answers to you. Completing and returning the questionnaire constitutes your consent to participate. If you have any questions regarding the research, contact me at doughtym@up.edu or my Advisor, Dr. Richard Christen, by phone at 503.943.7390. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact the Institutional Review Board office at the University of Portland.

I know how busy you are and how much is asked of you daily, and sincerely appreciate your consideration and help on this important research. Thank you so very much!

Sincerely,
Marla

Marla Doughty, MA, MAT

Dear School District Social Studies Teacher,

Hello again,
I sent you this email about two weeks ago about research I am conducting at the University of Portland and asked you to complete a survey. If you completed it—thank you so very much! If you haven't yet done so and would like to, here is the link again: Social Studies Teacher Survey.
I am going to close the survey on December 2nd, so this is the last week to take it if you wanted to.
Thank you for your time!
Marla

Appendix B

Qualtrics Survey Instrument

Qualtrics Survey Instrument

By taking this survey, you agree to participate in this research study. Your participation is voluntary. This research is meant to investigate the practices, beliefs, and communities of social studies teachers. All information will be reported anonymously, and your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your relationship with your school. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Marla Doughty at doughtym@up.edu. Thank you for taking this survey. It should take approximately 10 minutes.

Q1 What history classes you have taught at high school? Select all that apply.

- ❑ US History (1)
- ❑ AP US History (2)
- ❑ AP European History (3)
- ❑ European History (4)
- ❑ IB History (5)
- ❑ Other (6) _____

Q2 What other classes do you teach, if any?

- ❑ None (1)
- ❑ Economics (2)
- ❑ English (3)
- ❑ Government (4)
- ❑ Psychology (5)
- ❑ Sociology (6)
- ❑ Others (7) _____

Q3 What was your Bachelor's degree major(s)?

Q4 What was your minor(s)?

Q8 What is your graduate degree field?

- ❑ I do not have a graduate degree. (1)
- ❑ History Masters (2)
- ❑ Education MAT (3)
- ❑ Education MEd (4)
- ❑ Other: (5) _____

Q5 Have you ever taken a historiography class? (Historiography is the body of techniques, theories, and principles of historical research and presentation, and includes methods of historical scholarship).

- ❍ Yes, a full course (1)
- ❍ Yes, emphasis on historiography was incorporated into course (2)
- ❍ No (3)

Q6 Have you taken any graduate courses in History?

- ❍ No (1)
- ❍ Yes (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To To what extent do you agree with each...

Display This Question:
If Have you taken any graduate courses in History? Yes Is Selected

Q7 If yes, how many?

Q9 To what extent do you agree with each of these statements?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)	Not applicable (7)
My graduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q30 To what extent do you agree with each of these statements?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)	Not applicable (7)
My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical content. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
My college undergraduate history classes focused on historical thinking skills. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
My college teacher education classes focused on how to teach historical thinking skills. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q10 What experiences most influenced the ways in which you teach history? Please choose three.

- ❑ My experience as a high school student (1)
- ❑ My student teaching practicum (2)
- ❑ My social studies methods class (3)
- ❑ My college history classes (4)
- ❑ My graduate history classes (5)
- ❑ My experience as a social studies teacher (6)
- ❑ Interactions with colleagues (7)
- ❑ Continuous interactions with college history instructor (8)
- ❑ Continuous interactions with college education instructor (9)
- ❑ Professional development experience, such as: (10) _____
- ❑ Other: (11) _____

Q11 To what extent do you emphasize these themes in your history classes?

	Significant emphasis (5)	More emphasis (3)	Some emphasis (2)	No emphasis (1)
Political events: revolutions, elections, leaders, etc. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Military practices and developments: battle strategy, war, weaponry, etc. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Economic developments: trade, industry, agriculture, etc. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Social developments: every day life, roles of women, social classes, marginalized groups, etc. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q12 Please answer the following two questions about this hypothetical teaching scenario: You've been asked to teach a unit on Industrialization, a topic you have never taught and are only generally familiar with. It is a standard US History class. It is summer, and you have 2-3 weeks to prepare to teach this unit. How would you go about learning, knowing, and understanding the unit for which you are going to teach? Please choose the top 3 ways in which you would prepare to teach this unit:

- ❑ Read the textbook and teacher's resource guide (1)
- ❑ Find and read several primary sources on the subject (2)
- ❑ Read scholarly articles on the subject (3)
- ❑ Research related historiography (4)
- ❑ Watch YouTube or TED talks or listen to podcasts (5)
- ❑ Visit a historical site or monument (6)
- ❑ Read a related historical fiction or biography (7)
- ❑ Seek out archival sources, such as the Library of Congress website (8)
- ❑ Read about it on websites (9)
- ❑ Ask a historian (10)
- ❑ Other: (11) _____

Q15 In the same hypothetical scenario, what would you expect your students to do in order to learn, know, and understand the topic? Please choose the top 3 ways you would expect students to learn this topic?

- ❑ Read the textbook (1)
- ❑ Find and read several primary sources on the subject (2)
- ❑ Read scholarly articles on the subject (3)
- ❑ Research related historiography (4)
- ❑ Watch YouTube or TED talks or listen to podcasts (5)
- ❑ Visit a historical site or monument (6)
- ❑ Read a related historical fiction or biography (7)
- ❑ Seek out archival sources, such as the Library of Congress website (8)
- ❑ Read about it on websites (9)
- ❑ Ask a historian (10)
- ❑ Other: (11) _____
- ❑ Listen to instructor (12)

Q13 Do you use primary sources with your students in the classroom?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

If No Is Selected, Then Skip To How often do you use the following wi...

Q14 How often do you use these types of primary sources?

	Daily (1)	Once a week (2)	3-4 times a month (3)	Once a month (4)	Never or almost never (5)
Military sources: treaties, battle plans, etc. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Political sources: laws, speeches, etc. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Social sources: diaries, letters, etc. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Cultural sources: art, music, dance, etc. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q16 How do your students use primary sources in your classroom? Check all that apply.

- ❑ I do not use primary sources in my classroom (1)
- ❑ As content knowledge (2)
- ❑ To gain multiple perspectives of people in the past (3)
- ❑ To read, arrange, and analyze them to construct a thesis or historical narrative (4)
- ❑ As evidence to piece together what happened in the past (5)
- ❑ To develop historical inquiry (6)
- ❑ To support and complement the textbook (7)
- ❑ Other: (8) _____

Q17 How often do you use the following with your history students?

	Daily (1)	Once a week (2)	3-4 times a month (3)	Once a month (4)	Never or almost never (5)
Lecture (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teacher-led whole group discussions (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Small group instruction (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Individual instruction (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Socratic seminars (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Group assignments (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Student presentations (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q18 In comparison to other items listed, how much emphasis do you place on each of the following in your history classes?

	Significant emphasis (4)	More emphasis (3)	Some Emphasis (2)	No emphasis (1)
Learning facts, events, dates, names (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Understand themes and connections between topics (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍
View history through multiple perspectives (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Develop skills for supporting claims (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Develop understanding of historiography (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Other: (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q19 To what extent do you agree with each statement:

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
History is about objective truths not subjective truths. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
The purpose of studying history is different for historians than it is for everyone else. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Historians construct a narrative of significance about the past. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍
High school students first need to be taught the facts of the past before they develop historical thinking skills. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q20 What roles or responsibilities do you have at your school other than as a social studies teacher?

- ❑ I have no other roles other than a social studies teacher. (1)
- ❑ Administrator (2)
- ❑ Club leader or director (3)
- ❑ Coach (4)
- ❑ Department chair (5)
- ❑ Diversity/Equity team member (6)
- ❑ Professional Learning Community (PLC) or Team Leader (7)
- ❑ Other: (8) _____

Q21 How strongly connected to these communities do you feel in regards to your professional life?

	Strongly connected (1)	Moderately connected (2)	Weakly connected (3)	No connection (4)
Historians (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Social studies teachers (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Teachers of other disciplines (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Coaches/Athletes (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Writers/Artists/Musicians (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Other: (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q22 In what ways do you engage in history, other than as a teacher? Check all that apply.

- ❑ I do not engage with history other than as a teacher (1)
- ❑ I research history using primary sources (2)
- ❑ I read secondary historical research (3)
- ❑ I read historical novels and biographies (4)
- ❑ I visit historical sites and museums (5)
- ❑ Other: (6) _____

Q23 To what extent do you agree with EACH of the following statements?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
I share the same beliefs and sense of purpose about teaching history as other social studies teachers. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
I share resources such as primary documents and lessons plans with other social studies teachers. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍
I collaborate with social studies teachers from other schools. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q24 What sorts of professional organizations do you belong to? Check all that apply.

- ❑ I do not belong to any professional organizations (1)
- ❑ Historical organizations (2)
- ❑ Education organizations (3)
- ❑ Athletic/Coaching organizations (4)
- ❑ Equity or Civil Rights organizations (5)
- ❑ Literature/Journalism organizations (6)
- ❑ Other social studies organizations (7)
- ❑ Other: (8) _____

Q25 What other organizations, communities, or groups inform or influence your teaching?

- ❍ No other organizations or groups inform my teaching (7)
- ❍ Community or neighborhood organizations (1)
- ❍ Cultural Organizations (2)
- ❍ Political organizations (3)
- ❍ Social organizations (4)
- ❍ Religious organizations (5)
- ❍ Other: (6) _____

Q26 Compared to when you first started teaching, what best describes you now? To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Disagree (3)	Strongly disagree (4)
I feel more like a historian now. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
I am more connected to a community of historians now. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q31 Please elaborate on your answers to the previous question:

Q27 How many years have you been teaching?

Q28 Gender

Q29 What best describes you? Check all that apply.

- ❑ American Indian or Alaska Native (3)
- ❑ Asian (4)
- ❑ Black or African American (2)
- ❑ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (5)
- ❑ White (1)
- ❑ Multiple (7)
- ❑ Other (6) _____

Appendix C

Open-Ended Responses

Teacher Response: Agree, Agree
I continue to grow in my knowledge and understanding of history. I also work closely with other teachers, and with historical organizations, to improve my teaching. I also take students to lectures and presentations at the Oregon Historical Society and the World Affairs Council.
I work hard at being more knowledgeable every day through life experiences and the people around me.
Experience and age have broadened my outlook and perspective.
I am a life long learner. I continue to seek out new information and new people to discuss info with
I feel as if I understand the discipline better
I have been teaching 28 years, my historical base is very good at this point. Also I have connected more with others.
Although I feel better informed, I certainly don't feel many students enjoy the social studies experiences that moves well beyond knowing information to the ability to analyze and apply information and historical thinking skills.
As I continue to develop professionally, I have interacted with and am exposed to a wider variety of historical resources, courses, instructors, etc. than when I first began teaching.
Because I have learned different techniques for studying history from colleagues I feel more connection to the community.
Connections to colleagues and other social studies teachers.
Experience has changed my perspective on how to teach history
Good teachers stay connected to keep on top of new historical developments. It is an every evolving process.
I am a member of the local historical society. I also volunteer at the county museum and have researched and written about local historical events. I have collaborated with historians across the state and around the pacific northwest on a number of projects.
I believe that you really need to teach the subjects before you can really appreciate all of the different elements of history. You obviously can learn history, but teaching it to young people certainly gives you a different perspective.
I believe the more you teach history the more you understand and see the patterns of societies and larger connecting concepts throughout time.
I have a much stronger sense of community with my fellow social studies teachers than I did at my previous school.
I have gained more of a knowledge base of the larger community of historians and teachers of history.
I know more
I think as I have become a more experienced teacher, I feel as if I have more mastery over the content that I teach.
Much more research/reading/collaboration has been accomplished in the years since started
PLCs with a large school allows me to connect with 6 history teachers daily to discuss events, life, curriculum, etc.
Through professional development I've been able to network with additional teachers and programs that inform my history teaching.
Teacher Response: Agree, Disagree
I am the only social studies teacher in a small rural school
I do not reach out to historians, other than college professors on a very small scale.
I work in a rural school where I am the primary Social Studies teacher. As such, while I do work with my other colleagues, in many ways I am on an island.

Very liitle support outside of my department is provided.
History is not my emphasis or interest so when I have to teach it I just get through it as quickly and painlessly as possible. I do not at all enjoy history so I do not engage in anything related to the topic outside of occasionally being forced to teach it which I would do from a textbook since I don't have the knowledge to do it any other way.
I am farther from my college days when I interacted with researching professors.
I am not connected to historians since I left my undergrad work. But I study more history now than I used to.
I feel as though I am constantly learning and trying to broaden my own horizons and therefore consider myself an amateur historian.
I feel like, as a high school history instructor, we do not have the same freedom to explore history, interact with other research-based historians, and research historical topics that pertain to their own unique interests, as many "professional" historical researchers or college-level history instructors have.
I feel so busy all the time. It is hard to build meaningful relationships with other historians because it takes time, discussions, sharing in today's classroom there some collaboration time build in usually at the beginning of the year, but then it's back in the classroom with real life, which is busy
I had more connections to historians in other states who reached out to Social Studies teachers. Not in Oregon though.
I have had to research my own material, using skills learned in my undergrad degree. However, I love in a pretty rural area, so there are not many groups nearby for me to join. I could use the internet, but being a teacher is already absurdly time consuming.
I have limited ongoing connections to the historical community. I have extensive connections through continuing education experiences, but I rarely maintain contact with these people or groups
I only recently began teaching history, and since I live in an isolated area, I've not made a lot of connections.
I read and teach my students the skills that historians use. I read widely to educate myself on a new topic and search for primary sources to extend my learning to my students
I teach, talk, and think politics and history every day of my life. In our school, we have compartmentalized what we teach. Therefore, many of us become the "expert" in our field. However, in our department, we share strategies, common ideas, lesson plans, current events and best practices daily. It is our own historical society.
It is getting better, but being out in a rural area has drawbacks as far as communication with other teachers goes.
Prior to being a teacher, I read/studied history for pleasure. Now I construct my lessons to teach students about multiple sources and points of view.
When teaching in a small rural school, it's hard not to feel isolated.
Teacher Response: Disagree, Agree
More connected to other teachers in the district, more resources, etc.
I do not do investigative research but I do have history colleagues I share ideas with. I teach many subjects at small school so i look at many secondary sources. If I were focusing on only a coule preps I would take time to look at more focused primary documents.
Research and lesson prep have forced me to "shop" for the best information and the historians associated with it. I do not genuinely or formally engage in doing the work of a historian.
Teacher Response: Disagree, Disagree

During my time as an undergrad i felt like a historian because I was doing historical research and collaborating with historians. As a teacher, I am not doing research and inquiry that is specifically historically related. I am now teaching skills to students, and I use history as my avenue to do so.
I am a first-year teacher and I am still adjusting my approach to teaching history.
I feel that having to tiptoe around sensitive issues has taken much of the drive out of me to present these issues to students - particularly this election year. I do not feel that I have space or time to pursue my goals as a historian. I also feel that I have been excluded from some of my more serious academic colleague's newest research because they no longer feel that what I am doing (teaching high school) is academically valuable.
I see myself as a teacher of history, not a historian. I don't do original research.
I think that the person who developed these questions is clueless about the difficulty of teaching in high school these days. Technology has a huge impact (both positively and negatively). Also time is so jammed full of responsibilities beyond just the content of the class and few teachers put in extra time connecting with other teachers from other schools or with historians. Maybe college professors who have more time for research, etc. but high school teachers have little time during their working hours to do that. I have over 120 daily and don't have the time or energy to do many of the things this survey is asking about.
In my district we have been in a cycle of devaluing social studies. It is rarely taught at the elementary level and barely increases in rigor and content at the middle school level. I have been encouraged to focus more on reading and writing skills and less on content knowledge. In 18 years I have noticed a steep decline in knowledge and ability in my students because of this. It is very frustrating and disappointing.
We get stuck in our classrooms too often. I'm a teacher, but not a historian. I'm exposing others, but it feels less "academic" than college (yet more important and influential).
Between grading, planning, family, and other obligations, I am not available to be involved in historical groups as much as I would like.
getting out of grad school and getting locked into my classroom has limited my connections
Historians study and dissect history. As a teacher, I teach. Not study it myself or dissect it. Between planning, grading, and meetings there isn't time to be a historian. Also, the first question of this questionnaire is not correctly phrased.
I do not write nor present my research to other historians at conferences. Nor do I regularly see other historians or attend history conferences.
I don't feel any more like a historian then I did before becoming a teacher. I am not really connected to a community of historians.
I feel less. Pnnexted to historians than I did in my undergraduate studies.
I feel more like an educator than a Historian now, but I love when my learn something new and share with my students. Especially if it disproves a previous belief
I've never really felt connected to a community of historians. W.r.t. the first statement, the sheer number of students in my classes; the increased demands on teachers; the shift in emphasis on "leveling the field" for SPED students and those below grade level skills; and our district's move away from a block schedule to a more traditional 7-period day, have all served to make me feel less like an historian.
In what world does a HS history instructor have time to be a historian? We create no new historical data. I am not wild about this question.

My research is often limited to the specific courses I teach or theories of education and targeted at the appropriate level(s) of my students.
New to my history teacher job, previous outdoor education jobs
The demands placed on teachers as well as the variety of classes we have to teach make it difficult to focus on the history.